PE
1111
.W58

WHITE'S PRACTICAL GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION

Class PE1111
Book .W58
Copyright No.

COPYRIGHT DEPOSIT.

WHITE'S

PRACTICAL GRAMMAR

AND COMPOSITION

A COURSE OF INSTRUCTION BY PRACTICAL LESSONS,
SIMPLIFIED AND GRADED TO SUPPLY THE
DEMANDS OF THE SCHOOL ROOM
AND HOME.

COMPILED AND REVISED BY
BUCHANAN WHITE
SUPERINTENDENT CITY SCHOOLS
WESTON, W. VA.

MORGANTOWN W. VA.
The Acme Publishing Company
1904

PE1111
.W58

LIBRARY of CONGRESS
Two Copies Received
JAN 5 1905
Copyright Entry
Jan. 14, 1901
CLASS a XXc. No.
868
COPY B.

Copyright 1901
By BUCHANAN WHITE
Weston, W. Va.

PREFACE

a. m. R. May 15 1901.

White's Practical Grammar and Composition is the result of many years of close observation and hard study by the author.

Grammar is the science of the sentence. No other subject requires a more concise and general treatment. Grammar reveals the processes by which thought is expressed, and when properly presented is calculated to lead pupils into a knowledge of their own powers of mind. Every word, phrase and clause in a sentence should be thoroughly understood, and this knowledge can be obtained only by frequent drills in analysis and parsing.

In the study of the sentence, analysis should always be considered a leading product, and for this reason the author has prepared a very plain, practical and common sense system of diagrams.

The model diagrams are accompanied by frequent drills in analysis and parsing, which, together with supplemental exercises in composition writing, are sufficient to elucidate the correct application of the words used.

Educators realize that a serious impediment to the study of grammar is the introduction into the schools of the country of books which do not present the subject in a plain, practical manner; nor do they contain a complete, natural arrangement of the fundamental principles of the subject. To supply this urgent need this book has been prepared.

Parents of limited education who realize their inability to assist their children in the preparation of grammar lessons, will find this work a "present help in time of need", at least to the extent of the questions and answers, which form a part of each lesson. It is, in fact, a self-instructor and insures an easy, interesting and thorough preparation of the lessons.

The questions and answers serve as a guide to pupils, teachers and parents, thereby securing greater interest and more effective work at home and in the class room. This plan suggests itself for the reason that many teachers do not realize the importance of outlining lessons in advance and, as a result, pupils are not prepared to study the lesson until the recitation is over.

Teachers should not require pupils to commit to memory all the answers herein given, but the substance of the answers should be given in the pupil's own words.

The author sincerely hopes that this book will prove to be one of the greatest aids to the study of Grammar ever presented to the public.

CONTENTS

Part One

		Page.
I.	How Words are Used	9
II.	Why Words are Used	9
III.	Meaning and Use of Words	10
	Exercises	11
IV.	Parts of Speech Defined	12
V.	The Noun and Its Classes	14
VI.	Number and Person	15
	Section 1. Number	15
	Section 2. Person	16
VII.	Exercises Containing Nouns	17
VIII.	Individual Names	17
IX.	Abbreviation of Proper Nouns	18
X.	Other Words Abbreviated	20
	Section 1. Days and Months	20
	Section 2. Other Words	20
	Section 3. Other Words	20
XI.	The Pronoun	21
	Section 1. Pronoun Defined	21
	Section 2. Classes of Pronouns	22
XII.	The Verb	23
XIII.	Classes of Verbs	24
	Section 1. Three Classes of Verbs	24
	Section 2. Use of Subject and Predicate	25
	Section 3. Analysis Introduced	27
XIV.	Transitive Verbs	27
XV.	Intransitive Verbs	29
XVI.	Exercises Containing Verbs	30
XVII.	Tense of Verbs	31
	Section 1. Meaning of Tense	31
	Section 2. Number and Person of Verbs	31
XVIII.	Exercises in Number and Person of Verbs	32
XIX.	Review of the Noun	33
XX.	Review of the Verb	34

Page.

XLIX. Pronominal Adjectives....127
Section 1. Classification....127
Section 2. Observations....128
L. Comparison of Adjectives....130
Section 1. Kinds of Comparison....138
Section 2. Adjectives Classified....132
LI. The Adverb Resumed....133
LII. Order of Parsing Adverbs....135
LIII. Order of Parsing Prepositions....136
LIV. Order of Parsing Conjunctions....137
LV. Exercises for Practice....138
LVI. Infinitives Explained....139
Section 1. Uses of Infinitives....139
Section 2. Diagrams and Explanations..143
Section 3. Exercises in Infinitives....143
LVII. Properties of Nouns Resumed....146
Section 1. How Gender is Expressed....146
Section 2. Observations on Gender....149
LVIII. Number Observations....149
Section 1. Formation of Plural Number.149
Section 2. Compound Words....151
Section 3. Both Forms Made Plural....152
LIX. Different Uses of Words....153
LX. Marks of Punctuation....157
Section 1. Illustrations....157
Section 2. The Comma....158
Section 3. The Semi-Colon....160
Section 4. The Colon....161
Section 5. The Period....162
Section 6. The Dash....163
Section 7. The Hyphen....163
Section 8. The Exclamation Point....163
Section 9. Quotation Marks....164
Section 10. The Apostrophe....164
Section 11. Capital Letters....165
LXI. Uses of Different Parts of Speech....167
LXII. Different Uses of Pronouns....170
LXIII. General Review of all the Parts of Speech....172
LXIV. Sentences for Final Review....180

PART I.

LESSON I.

How and Why Words Are Used in Sentences.

In the sentence, "James reads good books," of whom is something said?

Ans.—Something is said of *James.*

What is said about James?
Ans.—He reads.

What does James read?
Ans.—Books.

What kind of books?
Ans.—Good books.

Why is the word "James" used in the sentence?
Ans.—To tell *who* reads.

Why is the word "reads" used?
Ans.—To tell what James *does.*

Why is the word "books" used?
Ans.—To tell *what* he reads.

Why is the word "good" used?
Ans.—To tell the *kind* of books.

LESSON II.

In the sentence, "Mary recited her lesson well," of whom is something said or asserted?

Ans.—Something is said of *Mary.*

What is said about Mary?
Ans.—She recited.

What did Mary recite?
Ans.—A lesson.

Whose lesson did she recite?
Ans.—Her [Mary's] lesson.

How did she recite it?
Ans.—She recited it *well.*

Why is the word "Mary" used in the sentence?
Ans.—To tell *who* recited.

Why is the word "recited" used?
Ans.—To tell what Mary *did.*

Why is the word "well" used?
Ans.—To tell *how* she recited.

Why is the word "her" used?
Ans.—To tell *whose* lesson she recited.

LESSON III.

Name the first word in the sentence, "Harry found twelve glass marbles," and tell its use.

Ans.—*Harry* is the first word. It is used to tell of whom we speak.

Name the second word and tell its use.

Ans.—*Found* is the second word. It is used to *assert* or *say* something about *Harry.*

Name the next word and give its use.

Ans.—The next word is "twelve," and it is used to tell *how many* marbles.

What is the fourth word, and what is its use?

Ans.—*Glass* is the fourth word. It is used to tell the *kind* of marbles.

Name the last word in the sentence and tell why it is used.

Ans.—*Marbles* is the last word, and it is used to tell *what* Harry found.

1. I saw five little birds in a nest.
2. Men shear sheep for the wool that grows on their backs.
3. The small boy has a pair of skates.
4. Fannie received a letter from her Uncle John.
5. All boys and girls do not like to work.
6. James broke his sled coasting down the hill.
7. Farmers raise wheat and corn on their farms.
8. The lark sings as it flies over the meadows.
9. Baby sleeps in its cozy little carriage.
10. The bird in the cage chirps and tries to get away.

NOTE.—Teachers should select other sentences and continue as above indicated until pupils become familiar with exercises of this kind. By this method they soon become interested in the subject matter, and the study of Grammar is thus made more interesting as the work progresses. Be careful to draw out the pupil's knowledge of the meaning and use of words.

LESSON IV.

In the previous lessons we talked about the meaning and use of words in a sentence. We must now learn that all these words may be used in sentences, and may be separated into certain groups or classes.

NOTE.—Observe that some words tell of what or of whom we speak; some tell what we say about the person or object named; some express action or tell about doing something;

others tell how, why, when or where a thing is done. Because words have these various uses, they are divided into nine classes called "parts of speech."

Parts of Speech Defined.

Section 1.

Note.—These definitions need not be committed to memory at this time, since each is explained under its proper classification.

A Noun is the name of a person or of any thing of which we may think or speak; as, William, house, knowledge.

A Verb is a word or words used to express action, state of being or condition; as, run, stand, write, build, shall go.

A Pronoun is a word used instead of the noun for which it stands; as, he, they, mine, yourself.

An Adjective is a word which limits or describes a noun or a pronoun; as, good, sweet, five, white, useful.

An Adverb is a word which modifies a verb, another adverb, a participle, or an adjective; as, rapidly, very, independently.

A Participle is a form of the verb which partakes of the use of a verb and of an adjective, or of a verb and a noun; as, seeing, loved, writing, having loved.

A Preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun or pronoun, called its object, and some other word; as, for, of, on, from, into

A Conjunction is a word which connects independent words, phrases and clauses; as, and, or, nor, but, unless.

An INTERJECTION is a word used to express surprise, fear, indignation, or other emotion; as, O, oh, alas, indeed.

Section 2.

What is a sentence?
Ans.—A sentence is a group of words so arranged as to express a complete thought.

With what kind of a letter should every sentence begin?
Ans.—Every sentence should begin with a capital letter.

In the sentence, "Mary sings," which word is the name of a person?
Ans.—The word *Mary*.

Commit to memory: All names of persons or of objects are called nouns.

What part of speech, then, is the word *Mary* in the sentence given above?
Ans.—The word *Mary* is a noun.

Why is the word *Mary* a noun?
Ans.—Because it is the name of a person.

Mention some other names of persons.
Ans.—Edward, Lucy, Uncle James.

Give the names of some objects in the school room.
Ans.—Book, slate, desk, stove.

To what part of speech do all these names belong?
Ans.—They belong to that part of speech called *the noun*.

Why are all these names called nouns?
Ans.—Because they are names of persons or of objects.

What is a noun?

Ans.—A noun is the name of a person or of any thing of which we may think or speak.

Name the nouns in the following sentences and tell which are names of persons, and which are names of objects. Be careful to distinguish between the *name* of an object and the object itself:

1. Harry made a swing for his sisters, Lucy and Kate.
2. Elsie was sick and Mary sent her some flowers.
3. God made the stars to shine by night.
4. Willis Morton went to school with Mr. Jarvis, his teacher.
5. Bruno was a good dog and lived with his master in Wheeling.
6. Men, women and children went to see the animals at the circus.
7. The carpenters built a house for the coal miners to occupy.
8. Farmers fell the trees and plow the ground before they plant corn.

LESSON V.

The Noun and Its Classes.

Into how many and what classes are nouns divided?

Ans.—Nouns are divided into two great classes: Common and Proper.

What does the word "common" mean?

Ans.—*Common* mean general, not any certain one.

What is a common noun?

Ans.—A common noun is a general name. It is the name of a class and may be applied to any object of that class; as city, man, country.

What does the word "proper" mean?

Ans.—It means particular, certain, special; some special or particular person, place or thing.

What is a proper noun?

Ans.—A proper noun is the name of some special or particular person, place or people. A proper noun is the name of a certain one of a class, and can be applied to that one only.

Name some proper nouns.

Ans.—Henry, Mary, Ohio, Pittsburg, West Virginia.

How should proper nouns always begin?

Ans.—Proper nouns should always begin with capital letters.

How should common nouns begin?

Ans.—Common nouns should begin with small letters unless they are words of special importance, or are used at the beginning of a sentence.

NOTE.—Ask pupils to give the name of some class, as city; then require them to give the names of some particular cities, as Chicago, Pittsburg. Explain that *city* is a *common* noun, while the name of a particular city is a proper noun. A few exercises of this kind will make clear the difference between a common noun and a proper noun.

LESSON VI.

Section 1.

What is number?

Ans.—Number is that form of nouns and pronouns which shows whether one or more than one is mentioned; as, boy, boys; sled, sleds.

How many numbers have nouns and pronouns?

Ans.—There are two numbers: Singular and Plural.

What is the use of singular number?

Ans.—Singular number is used when only one person or object is mentioned; as, pen, slate, book, town, road, Rella, Harry.

What is the use of plural number?

Ans.—Plural number is used to refer to more than one person or object; as pens, slates, books, towns, roads, men.

Write three sentences containing nouns in singular number.

Write three sentences containing nouns in plural number.

Section 2.

What is person as applied to nouns and pronouns?

Ans.—Person is that form of nouns and pronouns which shows whether the person speaks, is spoken to, or is spoken of.

How many and what persons are used in grammar?

Ans.—There are three persons: First, Second and Third.

To what does the first person apply?

Ans.—The first person applies to the name of the speaker: as *I, Joe Johnson,* shall not be there.

To what does the second person apply?

Ans.—The second person applies to the name of the person or object spoken to: as, *You, William,* should return.

To what does the third person apply?

Ans.—The third person applies to the name of the person or thing spoken of: as, *He, Henry Crites,* recites well.

Write three sentences containing nouns or pronouns in first person.

Write three sentences containing nouns or pronouns in second person.

Write three sentences containing nouns or pronouns in third person.

LESSON VII.

Point out the nouns in the following sentences, and tell which are common and which are proper nouns; also tell the number and person of each noun.

1. The sailor crossed the ocean.
2. Mr. Wharton is not in town.
3. Jessie Arland is a good girl.
4. The horses are in the field.
5. Uncle John has a cane in his hand.
6. Solomon was a wise man.
7. Fred lost his money on the street.
8. Mr. Jones, the carpenter, is a good mechanic.
9. There are prosperous farmers in the state of Ohio.
10. Charleston is the capital of the state of West Virginia.

NOTE.—The Teacher should explain that such words as "Mr. Wharton," "Jessie Arland," "Uncle John" and "West Virginia" are single names.

LESSON VIII.

NAMES OF INDIVIDUALS.

Of how many parts is the name of a person composed?

Ans.—Every name of a person is composed of two parts.

What are these parts called?

Ans.—One is called the *given* name, or *christian* name; and the other is called the *surname,* or *family* name.

NOTE.—Given names are also called *baptismal* names.

What is meant by the given, or christian name?

Ans.—The given name is that part of the name which is given by the parents; as, Sarah, Joseph, Philip, James.

What is meant by the surname?

Ans.—The surname is that part of the name which applies to each or all members of the family; as, Lee *Johnson,* John *Nuzum.*

How many words does the given name of a person contain?

Ans.—The given name may contain only one word, or it may contain two or more words.

Why do parents give their children these given or christian names?

Ans.—They are given in order to distinguish each member of the family from all the others.

How many words does the surname contain?

Ans.—The surname contains only one word.

In the sentence, "William Henry Harrison was elected President of the United States," which words compose the given name?

Ans.—*William* and *Henry.*

Which word is the surname?

Ans.—*Harrison* is the surname.

Mention several names of persons and separate them into given names and surnames.

LESSON IX.

Abbreviations.

Is it always necessary to write the entire given name of a person?

Ans.—It is not.

How may the name be shortened?

Ans.—By using the first letter of every part of the given name and placing a period after each letter.

How may the name "William Henry Harrison" be shortened?

Ans.—W. Henry Harrison, William H. Harrison, or W. H. Harrison.

What are the letters thus used called?

Ans.—They are called *initial* letters, or *initials* of the person's name.

What does "initial" mean?

Ans.—It means first.

What is this process of shortening names called?

Ans.—It is called *abbreviation,* which means shortening.

Abbreviate the following names:

Oliver Wendell Holmes.
Mary Elizabeth Watson.
John Edward Kenna.
Ralph Waldo Emerson.
James Abram Garfield.

NOTE.—Some names are abbreviated by using more than one letter; as, Geo. for George; Jas. for James; Jos. for Joseph; Jno. for John; Robt. for Robert; Thos. for Thomas. While these forms are recognized abbreviations, yet whenever the last letter of a name is used as part of the abbreviation, as Jas., Robt., Supt., it is more in accordance with grammatical science to use the apostrophe before the last letter, as Ja's, Rob't and Sup't, and use no period after it.

LESSON X.

Section 1.

Learn the following abbreviations:

Sun. Sunday,
Mon. Monday,
Tues. Tuesday,
Wed. Wednesday,
Thurs. Thursday,
Fri. Friday,
Sat. Saturday.
Jan. January,
Feb. February,
Mar. March,
Apr. April,
Aug. August,
Sept. September,
Oct. October,
Nov. November,
Dec. December.

Section 2.

Dr. doctor, debtor,
Co. company, county,
Mr. mister,
Lieut. lieutenant,
Cr. credit, creditor,
St. street, saint,
Mrs. mistress (missis),
Maj. major,
Gen. general,
Col. colonel,
Atty. attorney,
Pres. president,
Prof. professor,
Esq. esquire,
Gov. governor,
Rev. reverend,
Supt. superintendent,
Capt. captain,
Hon. honorable.

Section 3.

a. m. forenoon,
mt. mountain,
recd. received,
p. page,
pp. pages,
pt. pint,
yd. yard,
qt. quart,
p. m. afternoon, or P. M.
p. m. post master,
bu. bushel,
hhd. hogshead,

vs. against,
i. e. that is,
ft. foot, feet,
lb. pound,
l. line; ll. lines,
e. g. for example,
doz. dozen,
viz. namely,
M. D. doctor of medicine,
A. D. in the year of our Lord.

LESSON XI.

The Pronoun.

Section 1.

What is a pronoun?

Ans.—A pronoun is a word used in place of the noun for which it stands; as, Julius lost *his* ball.

What is the noun for which a pronoun stands called?

Ans.—It is called the *antecedent* of the pronoun.

What does "antecedent" mean?

Ans.—It means *preceding* or *going before.*

What does the word "pronoun" mean?

Ans.—*Pronoun* means for or in place of a noun.

In the sentence, "Irene studied her lesson," which word is a pronoun?

Ans.—The word *her* is a pronoun.

In place of what noun is "her" used?

Ans.—*Her* is used instead of the noun *Irene.*

How would the sentence read if the pronoun "her" were not used?

Ans.—Irene studied Irene's lesson.

In the sentence, "Lucy gave her book to Fannie," which word is a pronoun?

Ans.—*Her* is a pronoun.

In stead of what noun is "her" used?
Ans.—In stead of the noun *Lucy*.

Name some pronouns.
Ans.—I, you, he, her, it, his, they, their, them, who, himself.

NOTE.—Because pronouns stand for nouns, they also have number and person; as, *He* gave *me* an apple. *They* gave *us* apples.

Section 2.

There are three classes of pronouns: Personal, Relative and Interrogative.

What is a personal pronoun?
Ans.—A personal pronoun is one whose form shows whether it refers to the speaker, to the person addressed, or to the person or object spoken of.

NOTE.—These pronouns are called *personal* because they are used in place of the names of persons or individual things.

In the sentence, "Samuel lost his money," which word is a pronoun?
Ans.—*His* is a pronoun.

What kind of pronoun is "his?"
Ans.—*His* is a personal pronoun, because its form shows that it is used instead of the name of the person spoken of.

In place of what noun is "his" used?
Ans.—It is used in place of the noun *Samuel.*

What, then, is the name "Samuel" called?
Ans.—It is called the antecedent of the pronoun *his.*

In the sentence, "This is my book," which word is a pronoun?

Ans.—*My* is a pronoun.

In place of what noun is it used?

Ans.—*My* is used in place of the name (understood) of the speaker.

What kind of pronoun is "my?"

Ans.—It is a personal pronoun, and its antecedent is the name (understood) of the person speaking.

Name the personal pronouns.

Ans.—I, thou, you, she, he and it, with their other forms. *Me, my, we* and *us* are examples of other forms of the pronoun *I*.

Write three sentences containing personal pronouns, and name the antecedent of each.

LESSON XII.

The Verb.

What is a verb?

Ans.—A verb is a word, or words, used to express action, state of being or condition; as, Frank *walks*. The house *stands*. Baby *sleeps*.

Name some verbs.

Ans.—Sing, read, talk, write, run, live, am, was.

In the sentence, "Birds chirp," which word is a verb?

Ans.—*Chirp* is a verb.

Point out the nouns, personal pronouns and verbs in the

following sentences, and tell the person and number of each noun and pronoun.

1. Horses draw loads.
2. Pupils recite lessons.
3. The farmer plows the ground.
4. Helen reads and writes.
5. Bees are insects.
6. The ground is cold.
7. He went home yesterday.
8. Uncle Joseph will come again.
9. Carpenters build houses.
10. My book is on your desk.
11. His slate is broken.
12. They went away early in the morning.

LESSON XIII.

Classes of the Verb.

Section 1.

According to their use, verbs are divided into three classes: Copulative, Transitive and Intransitive.

Note.—This section and the next should be studied together.

What is a copulative verb?

Ans.—A copulative verb is one which merely asserts the predicate and joins it to the subject. (See next lesson for definition of subject and predicate.)

What does the word "copula" mean?

Ans.—It means a link—linking or joining together.

Why are copulative verbs so called?

Ans.—Because they link or join the predicate to the subject.

Give an example of a copulative verb.
Ans.—Wagons *are* vehicles. *Are* is a copulative verb.

Why is "are" a copulative verb?
Ans.—Because it asserts the predicate *vehicles,* and joins it to the subject *wagons.*

Section 2.

ANALYSIS: USE OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

Every sentence has two leading parts. One is called the *subject,* and the other is called the *predicate.* The subject is always the name of the person or object about which something is asserted. The predicate is that which is said of or about the subject.

In the sentence, "Barley is a vegetable," what is the subject?
Ans.—*Barley* is the subject.

Why is "barley" the subject?
Ans.—Because it is the name about which something is said.

Which word is the predicate?
Ans.—*Vegetable* is the predicate.

Why is "vegetable" the predicate?
Ans.—Because it is that which is said about the subject.

What is the word "is" called?
Ans.—*Is* is called the copula.

NOTE.—A very frequent use of the copula is to assert some quality; as, Apples are sour. Candy is sweet.

What is the subject of the sentence, "Apples are sour?"
Ans.—*Apples* is the subject.

What is the predicate?
Ans.—*Sour* is the predicate.

What is the use of the word "are" in the sentence?

Ans.—*Are* is the copula and joins the predicate *sour* to the subject *apples.*

NOTE.—Learn the following definitions:

The *subject* is that part of a sentence about which something is said or asserted.

The *predicate* is that part of a sentence which is said about the subject.

The *copula* is a word or words used to assert the predicate, and join it to the subject.

———o———

Analysis may also be expressed by diagrams. The diamond shaped figure (◇) may be used between the subject of a sentence and the verb. The upper half of this figure — (∧) may be used before an objective element. The quarter diamond, slanting toward the verb (∖) may be used between an adjective or a noun predicate and a copulative verb. The quarter diamond, slanting toward an objective element (∧) may indicate a modifier of that element. Also the right and left halves of this figure may enclose words in apposition (〈 〉).

Adjective and adverbial modifiers should be placed on lines slanting downward to the left from the words which they modify.

———o———

Diagram the following sentences according to the models given below:

Roses bloom. The grass grows. The rain falls. Snow melts. Candy is sweet. He is old. Mary is sick. Sheep are animals. Roads are highways. Jane reads books. John sold his farm. The hunters killed a deer. John Milton wrote Paradise Lost.

Birds ◇ sing Sheep ◇ are ∧ animals

Jane ◇ reads ∧ books

Section 3.

Analysis Continued.

What is meant by analysis?

Analysis means naming the several parts of a sentence and pointing out the nature of their relation or connection with one another.

Name the subject, predicate and copula in each of the following sentences. Also tell the person and number of the nouns and pronouns.

1. Jonas is a large man.
2. Copper is a metal.
3. The moon is a planet.
4. Teaching is a profession.
5. Farmers are laborers.
6. Snow is white.
7. The fields look green.
8. Boys will be boys.
9. Pupils should be studious.
10. Elihu could have been a rich man.
11. Harry and Kate are sick.
12. The lily is a pretty flower.
13. Oliver could be a useful boy.
14. Some pupils are not industrious.
15. Uncle Ned is old but Aunt Lucy is quite young.

LESSON XIV.

Transitive Verbs.

What is a transitive verb?

Ans.—A transitive verb is one that does not express a complete thought within itself; as, Pupils *study*. Here *study* does

not express a complete thought, but some word, as *physiology* must be supplied.

NOTE.—The word "transitive" means passing, and a transitive verb is so called because the action expressed by the verb passes from the subject to something else called the object. Thus, in the sentence, "Fannie struck Willie," the action expressed by the verb *struck,* passes from the subject, *Fannie,* to the object, *Willie.*

How may you determine when a verb is transitive?

Ans.—The verb is transitive whenever it requires another word or words to complete its meaning.

In the sentence, "John has a pencil," what kind of verb is "has?"

Ans.—It is a transitive verb.

Why is "has" a transitive verb?

Ans.—Because it does not express a complete thought within itself.

What word completes the meaning of "has?"

Ans.—The word *pencil* completes its meaning.

How may you generally tell what word completes the meaning of a transitive verb?

Ans.—By asking a question using *who* or *what* with the verb, or with the subject and verb. Ex.—John ate an apple. Ate what?

Ans.—An apple.

What is the word that completes the meaning of a transitive verb called in analysis?

Ans.—It is called *the object,* or an *objective element.*

Name the nouns, pronouns, transitive verbs, subjects, predi-

cates and objects in each of the following sentences: also tell the number and person of all nouns and pronouns:

1. Harry lost his knife.
2. The oil men drilled five wells.
3. I studied my lesson.
4. William caught the ball.
5. The hunter shot a deer.
6. Bees gather honey.
7. Jacob sold a team of horses.
8. God made the world.
9. Farmers plant corn and sow wheat.
10. Laborers receive pay for their work.
11. I saw a wild horse on the prairie.
12. The flood destroyed the growing crops.
13. They moved the house across the street.
14. The train killed several buffaloes.

NOTE.—Teachers should select other sentences than those given in the text. Help pupils to distinguish transitive verbs at sight.

LESSON XV.

INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

What is an intransitive verb?

Ans.—An intransitive verb is one that expresses a complete thought within itself; as, The snow *falls.*

Does an intransitive verb ever require an additional word to complete its meaning?

Ans.—It does not.

In the sentence, "Stars shine," what kind of verb is "shine?"

Ans.—*Shine* is an intransitive verb.

State why "shine" is an intransitive verb.

Ans.—Because it expresses a complete thought within itself.

That is, it does not require an additional word to complete its meaning.

NOTE 1.—The word *intransitive* means *not passing.* It means *remaining, standing still.* Intransitive verbs are so called because the action signified by the verb does not pass to or act upon any object. In the sentence, "Stars shine," the action signified by the verb *shine* does not pass to or act upon anything else, but remains with the subject *stars.*

NOTE 2.—Some verbs may be used in a transitive and also in an intransitive sense. Ex.—The wind blows. In this sentence *blows* is intransitive, because the action does not pass to or act upon any object. But in the sentence, "The wind blows the chaff away," *blows* is *transitive* because the action signified by the verb *blows* passes to and acts upon the object *chaff.*

LESSON XVI.

In the following sentences, point out the verbs and tell which are copulative, which are transitive, and which are intransitive verbs; also tell which nouns are common and which are proper, and give the number and person of each noun and pronoun:

1. The wind whistled.
2. The barrel leaks.
3. Ancient trees still stand.
4. The heavens are bright with stars.
5. James recited two lessons.
6. Two horses ran away from their driver.
7. The earth revolves on its axis.
8. Vessels sail on the ocean.
9. The balloon ascends toward the sky.
10. The engineer jumped from his engine.

LESSON XVII.

Tense of Verbs.

Section 1.

What is the meaning of the word "tense?"
Ans.—*Tense* means *time.*

Note.—Tense of verbs means the time of action expressed by the verb, and it shows the time meant by the speaker or writer.

In the sentence, "I write," in what tense is "write?"
Ans.—*Write* is in present tense because it refers to present time.

In the sentence, "I wrote," in what tense is "wrote," and why?
Ans.—*Wrote* is in past tense because it refers to past time.

In the sentence, "I shall write," in what tense is "shall write?"
Ans.—It is in future tense because it refers to time yet to come.

Note to Teacher.—Call special attention to the three tenses named. Select a number of verbs and require pupils to give the present, past and future tenses of each: Walk, ride, read, plow, reap, laugh, plant, build.

Section 2.

Person and Number as Applied to Verbs.

A verb should agree with its subject in number and person.

What is meant by a verb agreeing with its subject in "number?"
Ans.—It means that when a noun or pronoun in singular

number is used as its subject, the singular form of the verb should be used. And when a noun or pronoun in plural number is used as its subject, the plural form of the verb should be used.

In the sentence, "The horse runs," is "runs" a singular or plural verb?

Ans.—*Runs* is a singular verb because its subject horse is in singular number.

In the sentence, "Horses run," is "run" a singular or a plural verb?

Ans.—*Run* is a plural verb because its subject *horses* is in plural number.

LESSON XVIII.

What is meant by a verb agreeing with its subject in person?

Ans.—When the subject of a verb is in first, second, or third person, the verb itself must be in the same person to agree with that subject.

Give an example.

Ans.—Henry gave me his book. Here the subject of the verb *gave* is *Henry*, and since the noun *Henry* is in third person, the verb must also be in third person.

1. In the following sentences, point out the nouns and give the number and person of each. 2. Tell the kind of verbs and give the number and person of each. 3. Change singular nouns to plural, and plural nouns to singular number, and make corresponding changes in the verbs. 4. Give the tense of each verb. 5. Point out the personal pronouns and give the number and person of each.

NOTE.—Do not hasten over this part of the work. Take short lessons and learn them well.

1. The rose blooms.
2. Roses bloom.
3. The boy falls down.
4. Boys fall down.
5. We wrote letters at school.
6. I will write you a letter.
7. Lambs play on the hillside.
8. The little bird hopped along the ground.
9. A good pupil will study his lesson.
10. Men saw lumber and build houses.
11. Many buildings were destroyed by fire.
12. Four bridges were washed away by the flood.

Fill the following blanks with *is, was, are* or *were*:

1. The teacher —— at school.
2. Many pupils —— at school.
3. Where —— the capital located?
4. Lucy and Mary —— studying Algebra.
5. How many of them —— yours?
6. I —— invited to the wedding.
7. —— you invited.
8. Where —— the girls now?
9. Where —— they yesterday?
10. How many men —— working today?

LESSON XIX.

Review of the Noun.

What is a noun?
How many classes of nouns?
Define each class and give examples.
How should proper nouns begin?
How should common nouns begin?

What is number? How many numbers have nouns and pronouns?

How many persons have nouns and pronouns? Define each.

Write three sentences containing common nouns.

Write three sentences containing proper nouns.

Name the subjects and predicates of the sentences you have written.

Name the person and number of all nouns, pronouns and verbs used.

LESSON XX.

Review of the Verb.

What is a verb?
Name the classes of verbs.
What does the word "copula" mean?
What is a transitive verb?
What is an intransitive verb?
What is a copulative verb?
Why are words used in sentences?
How may you generally tell whether a verb is transitive or intransitive?

Write three sentences containing copulative verbs. Give the number and person of each.

Write three sentences containing transitive verbs. Give the number and person of each.

Write three sentences containing intransitive verbs. Give the number and person of each.

Name the tense of all the verbs you have used.

LESSON XXI.

Sentences and Propositions.

What is a sentence? How should every sentence begin?
What is a proposition?
Ans.—A proposition is an expressed thought.

How many kinds of propositions are used in grammar?
Ans.—There are two kinds of propositions: Complete and Incomplete.

What is a complete proposition?
Ans.—A complete proposition is one that expresses a complete thought when used alone.

Give examples.
Ans.—Grass grows. Birds fly.

What is an incomplete proposition?
Ans.—An incomplete proposition is one that does not express a complete thought when used alone.

Give examples.
Ans.—Grass grows *when spring comes.*
Birds fly *when the weather is warm.*

What is the difference between a sentence and a proposition?
Ans.—All complete propositions are sentences, but incomplete propositions are not, because they do not express complete thoughts when used alone.

What other names are sometimes applied to propositions?
Ans.—They are sometimes called *dependent* and *independent* propositions; also *principal* and *subordinate* propositions.

In the sentence, "Improve the time while you are young," what is the complete proposition?
Ans.—Improve the time.

What is the incomplete proposition?
Ans.—While you are young.

Name the complete and incomplete propositions in the following sentences:

1. The minister said that he would return soon.
2. I hope that you succeeded in your undertaking.
3. Horses are animals that are useful to man.
4. The desk, which you purchased, is dear at the price paid.
5. The carpenter who built the church, is also a minister.

LESSON XXII.

Kinds of Sentences.

Section 1.

There are sentences which declare or deny something; there are others which ask questions, or which exclaim or command something. On account of such variety of expressing thought, sentences are divided into four classes: Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative and Exclamatory.

What is a declarative sentence?
Ans.—A declarative sentence is one which asserts or denies something.

Give examples.
Ans.—The windows were broken.
The car was not crowded.

What is an interrogative sentence?
Ans.—An interrogative sentence is one that asks a question.

Give examples.
Ans.—Where do you live?
What was the decision of the judges?

What is an imperative sentence?

Ans.—An imperative sentence is one that expresses a command or makes an entreaty. It is also sometimes used in exhortation.

Give examples.

Ans.—Speak gently to all.
Let us sing another song.

How may an imperative sentence usually be known?

Ans.—By the omission of the subject of the sentence.

What is generally used as the subject of an imperative sentence?

Ans.—The word *thou* or the word *you* is often used as the subject of an imperative sentence.

Give illustrations.

Ans.—In the sentence, "Bring me your book," the word *you* (understood) is the subject of the verb *bring*.

What is an exclamatory sentence?

Ans.—An exclamatory sentence is one that expresses fear, surprise, anger, indignation, or other strong feeling.

Give examples.

Ans.—O, I am so frightened!
You don't say so!

Section 2.

What are punctuation marks?

Ans.—They are marks or points so placed as to separate sentences or parts of sentences according to the closeness of relation of these parts to each other.

Name the marks or points most used.

Ans.—The comma (,); semicolon (;); colon (:); period

(.) ; interrogation point (?) ; exclamation point (!) ; quotation marks (" ").

What mark should be placed at the end of declarative and imperative sentences?

Ans.—A period should be placed at the end of each.

What point should be placed at the end of an interrogative sentence?

Ans.—The question mark, or interrogation point.

What mark should be placed at the end of an exclamatory sentence?

Ans.—The exclamation point.

Write three declarative sentences.

Write three interrogative sentences.

Write three imperative sentences.

Write three exclamatory sentences.

Point out the nouns, personal pronouns and verbs in the sentences you have written, and tell whether the nouns are common or proper; whether the verbs are copulative, transitive or intransitive. Tell the number and person of the nouns, pronouns and verbs used.

LESSON XXIII.

Sentences According to Form.

Some sentences express single thoughts; some express two or more thoughts in the same connection; others express one complete and one or more incomplete thoughts joined together. On account of these different forms of expressing thought, sentences are divided into three classes: Simple, Complex, and Compound. (See Lesson XXI.)

What is a simple sentence?

Ans.—A simple sentence is the expression of a single thought.

Give examples of simple sentences.

Ans.—God created the heavens.
The river flows onward.

What is a complex sentence?

Ans.—A complex sentence is the expression of one complete, and one or more incomplete propositions.

Give examples of complex sentences.

Ans.—I hope *that you are well.*
We found the book *which was lost.*

NOTE.—The italicized words in the above sentences form the incomplete or subordinate propositions. The other words form the complete or principal propositions.

What is a compound sentence?

Ans.—A compound sentence is a sentence composed of two or more independent propositions connected by coordinate conjunctions.

NOTE.—A compound sentence may contain one or more simple sentences joined to one or more subordinate propositions; or it may be composed of two or more simple sentences, or two or more complex sentences.

NOTE.—The simple or complex sentences composing a compound sentence, are called members of the compound sentence.

Write three simple sentences.

Write three complex sentences.

Write three compound sentences.

1. Name the nouns you have used and tell whether they are common or proper.

2. In what number and person is each noun?

3. Name the verbs and tell whether they are copulative, transitive or intransitive.

4. In what number and person is each verb used?

5. Name the subjects and predicates of the sentences.

6. Tell which part of each complex sentence forms the complete, and which part forms the incomplete proposition.

7. Name the members of each compound sentence you have written.

LESSON XXIV.

Analysis and Parsing.

What two leading parts has every sentence?

Ans.—Every sentence has a *subject* and a *predicate.*

What is the subject of a sentence?

Ans.—The subject is that part of the sentence about which something is said.

What is the predicate of a sentence?

Ans.—The predicate is that part of the sentence which is said about the subject. (See Lesson XIII, Sec. 2.)

What are the other parts of a sentence called?

Ans.—They are called modifiers. A copulative verb is called *the copula.*. Modifiers are also called elements.

What is analysis?

Ans.—Analysis is the separation of a sentence into its elements, and designating the position and use of each element.

Analyze or diagram the following sentences; and tell whether the nouns are common or proper; whether they are

used in singular or plural number; whether they are in first, second or third person.

Tell whether the verbs are copulative, transitive or intransitive; whether they are in singular or plural number; whether they are in first, second or third person; whether the verbs are in present, past or future tense:

1. Iron is a metal.
2. The oranges are ripe.
3. Roses are beautiful.
4. Mary studies geography.
5. Julius catches fish.
6. Patrick Henry was an orator.
7. People inhabit the earth.
8. The French invasion produced a complete change.
9. The present which you sent me is a fine one.
10. The sky is clear and the day is warm.

LESSON XXV.

The Adjective.

What is an adjective?

Ans.—An adjective is a word which limits or describes a noun or pronoun; as *a* book; *sweet* apples; He is *sick*.

How many and what are the classes or kinds of adjectives?

Ans.—There are two great classes of adjectives: Descriptive and Definitive.

What is a descriptive adjective?

Ans.—A descriptive adjective is one which denotes a quality or condition of the noun which it modifies.

Name some descriptive adjectives.

Ans.—Good, red, cold, bright, useful.

Place each adjective named above, before a noun. Ex.—A *good* book.

In the sentence, "John lives in a large, beautiful house," which words are descriptive adjectives?

Ans.—*Large* and *beautiful.*

Why are "large" and "beautiful" descriptive adjectives?

Ans.—Because they denote a quality or condition of *house.*

What are adjectives called in analysis?

Ans.—They are called adjective elements, or adjective modifiers.

Analyze or diagram the following sentences, and tell the kind of sentence; the kind of nouns; the kind of verbs; also point out the descriptive adjectives and tell what each modifies:

1. Silver is a valuable metal.
2. Sarah has a kind, good mother.
3. I saw a yellow rose and a white pink.
4. A bright, shining light was seen.
5. A good book is a desirable companion.
6. They gave us a red, white and blue flag.
7. A beautiful swan was seen on the broad lake.
8. An honest man is a useful person.
9. The Spanish vessels were easily captured by the American fleet.

LESSON XXVI.

Definitive Adjectives.

Section 1.

What is a definitive adjective?

Ans.—A definitive adjective is one which limits or points out a noun without denoting quality.

Name some definitive adjectives.

Ans.—The, that, a, three, same, all, no, many.

In the sentence, "Two books are on that desk," which words are definitive adjectives?

Ans.—*Two* and *that.*

Why are they definitive adjectives?

Ans.—Because they limit nouns without denoting quality.

What does the word "two" limit in the above sentence?

Ans.—*Two* limits the noun books by telling the number of books.

What does the word "that" limit?

Ans.—*That* limits the noun *desk* by pointing out which desk is referred to by the speaker.

In a similar manner point out the definitive adjectives in the following sentences, and tell what noun each limits:

1. A cup is on the stove.
2. These books are not very useful.
3. All of the hats are made of the same material.
4. Every man should own a house.
5. Each pupil recited five stanzas.
6. Many people came to this town.
7. The soldier who sank that ship was a hero.
8. Some weary travellers stopped at the old hotel.

Section 2.

NOTE.—The sentence, "Men are happy," does not express a truth, because all men are not happy. But the sentence, "Good men are happy," is true, because the word *good* changes the meaning of the noun *men* by denoting a quality or condition. *Good,* then, is an adjective modifier.

The Adverb.

What is an abverb?

Ans.—An adverb is a word used to vary the meaning of a verb, another adverb, a participle or an adjective.

Give examples of adverbs.

Ans.—In the sentence, "This lesson is very long," *very* is an adverb and modifies the adjective *long*. In the sentence, "Swallows fly very rapidly," *very* is an adverb and modifies *rapidly;* and *rapidly* is an adverb modifying the verb *fly*.

What are adverbs called in analysis?

Ans.—They are called adverbial elements, or adverbial modifiers.

Note.—When adverbs and adverbial elements are used to modify verbs, they tell *how, why, when, where* or *how often* the action is done. Nearly all words ending in *ly* are adverbs, and they tell *how*.

Section 3.

Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs.

Why are adjectives and adverbs sometimes changed in form, as mild, milder, mildest?

Ans.—To express degrees of quality or condition.

What is such a change called?

Ans.—It is called *comparison*.

Define comparison.

Ans.—Comparison is a change in the form of an adjective or adverb to express variation or degrees of quality or condition.

How many and what are the degrees of comparison?

Ans.—There are three degrees of comparison: Positive, Comparative and Superlative.

What is the use of the positive degree?

Ans.—The positive degree expresses the simple or common quality, degree or condition.

Give examples of adjectives in the positive degree of comparison.

Ans.—A *good* book; a *mild* winter; a *loud* noise; a *beautiful* picture.

What is the use of the comparative degree?

Ans.—The comparative degree expresses quality, degree or condition of a higher or lower order than that expressed by the positive.

Give examples of adjectives in the comparative degree.

Ans.—A *better* book; a *milder* winter; a *louder* noise; a *more beautiful* picture.

What is the use of the superlative degree of comparison?

Ans.—The superlative degree expresses the highest or lowest possible degree of quality, degree or condition.

Give examples of adjectives in the superlative degree.

Ans.—The *best* book; the *mildest* winter; *loudest* noises; the *most beautiful* picture.

Refer to LESSON XXV and name all descriptive adjectives found in the list of sentences given. Compare each by the following model: Positive, mild; Comparative, milder; Superlative, mildest. Also; Positive, useful; Comparative, more useful; Superlative, most useful.

Section 4.

Kinds of Elements, or Modifiers.

The subject and predicate of a proposition are called the leading, or principal elements of the sentence. In addition to

these, there are three kinds of modifying elements: Adjective, Objective and Adverbial.

What is an adjective element?

Ans.—An adjective element is a word, phrase or clause which modifies a noun or some expression used as a noun.

Give examples of adjective elements.

Ans.—A *rich* man; a man *of wealth;* a man *who is wealthy.*

What constitutes a "phrase?"

Ans.—A phrase consists of two or more words which modify as a single word. It has neither subject nor predicate and, therefore, does not express a thought; as, to see; on time; over and over.

What is a clause?

Ans.—A clause is a group of words having both a subject and a predicate but which, by itself, does not make complete sense. Incomplete or subordinate propositions are clauses; as, A girl, *who was sick,* came to school.

What is an objective element?

Ans.—An objective element is a word, phrase or clause used as the object of a transitive verb.

Give examples of objective elements.

Ans.—We built our *house;* I like *to read;* John said *that the ball did not belong to him.*

What is an adverbial element?

Ans.—An adverbial element is a word, phrase or clause used to modify a verb, another adverb, a participle or an adjective.

Give examples of adverbial modifiers.

Ans.—They were *greatly* frightened; They were frightened *by the soldiers;* They were frightened *when the soldiers returned.*

LESSON XXVII.

Classes of Pronouns.

We learned in Lesson XI that there are three classes of pronouns: Personal, Relative and Interrogative. The use of personal pronouns is nicely illustrated in the following sentence: "John lost his ball in his yard, and when he found it he took it to his room and put it in his trunk."

Now, if we had no personal pronouns, how would this sentence read?

Ans.—John lost John's ball in John's yard, and when John found John's ball John took John's ball to John's room and put John's ball in John's trunk.

What is a relative pronoun?

Ans.—A relative pronoun is a word which stands for a noun, and also connects two propositions.

Name some relative pronouns.

Ans.—Who, which and what.

In the sentence, "The farmer who was busy making hay, answered us civilly," which word is a relative pronoun?

Ans.—*Who* is a relative pronoun.

What is the use of "who" in the above sentence?

Ans.—It has two uses: First, it stands for and relates to *farmer*. Second, it joins the two propositions.

What kind of sentence is it?

Ans.—It is a complex sentence.

Why is it a complex sentence?

Ans.—Because it contains a complete and also an incomplete proposition.

Name the complete proposition.

Ans.—The farmer answered us civilly.

Name the incomplete, or subordinate proposition.
Ans.—Who was busy making hay.

What is the antecedent of the pronoun "who?"
Ans.—*Farmer* is its antecedent.

How many kinds of relative pronouns are there?
Ans.—There are two kinds: Simple and Compound.

Name the simple relatives.
Ans.—Who, which, what, that and as.

Name the compound relatives.
Ans.—Whoever, whoso, whosoever, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, whatsoever. *What* is sometimes called a double relative, equivalent to *that which* or *the thing which.*

How are compound relatives formed?
Ans.—By annexing the syllable *so, ever* or *soever* to a simple relative.

Write three sentences containing relative pronouns. Name the complete and incomplete propositions in each sentence. Point out the antecedents of the relatives you have used.

Section 2.

1. Separate the following sentences into complete and incomplete propositions.
2. Tell the kind of nouns used and give number and person of each.
3. Point out the adjectives and tell whether they are descriptive or definite.
4. Tell the kind of verbs, whether copulative, transitive or intransitive.
5. Designate the adjective, objective and adverbial elements and tell what each modifies.

6. Name the relative pronouns and point out the antecedent of each relative:

1. The man who died left a will.
2. Reading is an art which deserves cultivation.
3. The lady whom you met is a school-teacher.
4. He will do what is right.
5. That is the house in which Henry lives.
6. The doctor's horse, which ran away, was badly crippled.
7. The house that Uncle Ned built, was destroyed by fire.
8. The little animal tried to do whatever the man did.
9. The principal servants of the crown were men whose names have acquired an enviable notoriety.
10. A song I sing, an humble song
For the farmer's honest calling;
Whose sinews strong toil all day long
In plowing, threshing, mauling—
Whose manly step and upright form
We recognize on meeting—
Whose hardened hand we haste to grasp
In friendship's cordial greeting.—William Hubbard.

NOTE.—The words *what* in the fourth sentence, and *whatever* in the eighth are each equivalent to *that which* or *the thing which.*

LESSON XXVIII.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

What is an interrogative pronoun?

Ans.—An interrogative pronoun is one that is used in asking a question; as, *Which* is yours?

Name the interrogative pronouns.

Ans.—Who, which and what are often used as interrogative pronouns.

NOTE.—*Who* is always an interrogative pronoun when used in asking a question, but *which* and *what* are not interrogative pronouns when they immediately precede the name of the person or thing about which inquiry is made. In the sentence, "Which is yours?" *which* is an interrogative pronoun. But in the sentence, "Which book is yours?" *which* is an adjective and modifies the noun *book*.

Do interrogative pronouns have antecedents?

Ans.—They do not have antecedents, but they do have subsequents.

What does the word "subsequent" mean?

Ans.—Subsequent means something that follows.

What, then, is the subsequent of an interrogative pronoun?

Ans.—It is that part of the answer to the question which refers to the pronoun itself.

In the sentence, "Who wrote this letter?—James," which word is an interrogative pronoun?

Ans.—The word *who* is an interrogative pronoun.

What is the subsequent of "who?"

Ans.—The noun *James* is the subsequent.

Why is "James" the subsequent?

Ans.—Because it is that part of the answer represented by *who*.

NOTE.—The subsequent of an interrogative pronoun is not always given in the sentence, in which case it is said to be indefinite; that is, not known.

Write three sentences containing interrogative pronouns, and name the subsequent of each.

NOTE.—Some authors divide pronouns into four classes: Personal, Possessive, Relative, and Interrogative. We prefer three divisions only, for reasons given below.

Any effort to properly present a treatise on the disposition

of *possessive* pronouns tends toward perplexity rather than perspicuity, and this should be avoided, because Grammar, even in its simplest form, is more or less mystifying to the young mind.

It is claimed that such words as *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs,* etc., are possessive pronouns because the name of the thing possessed does not always follow such words.

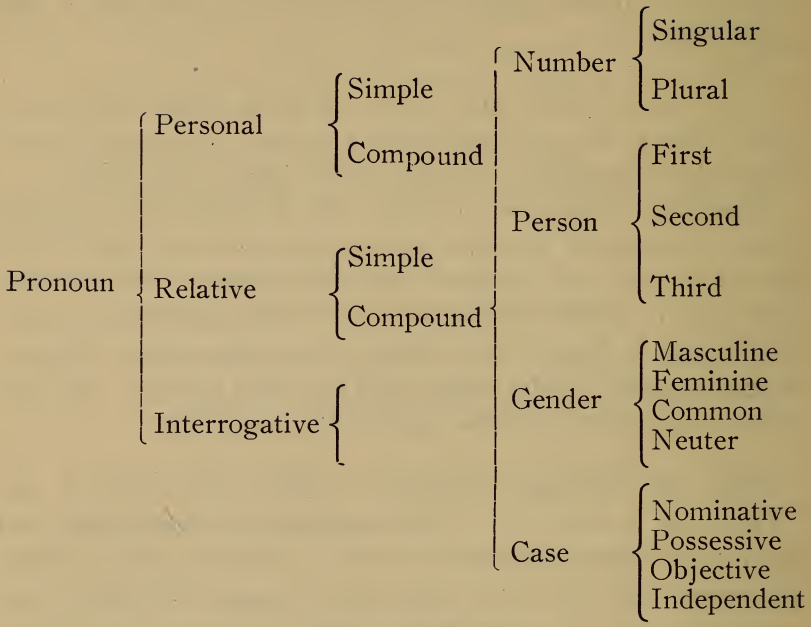
Sentence: "This book is mine." By declension we find that *mine* is a personal pronoun in the possessive case, and not in the nominative case, as given by some authors. We also find that *mine* is in first person, and not in third person, as would be the case if "book" were taken for its antecedent. *Mine* is also in common gender rather than in neuter gender. Say that *mine* is a personal pronoun, equivalent to *my book.*

Take the following sentences: "This book is hers," and "This book is Mary's." If the argument be sound, that possessive pronouns represent both the possessor and the thing possessed, then the word *hers* must change its nature, use, name and class. In other words, if *hers* represents two things, —the noun *book* and the name of the person spoken of,—then the word Mary's in the other sentence, must also represent two things. If *hers* in the one instance is in neuter gender to agree with *book* as its antecedent, then *Mary's* may, with equal propriety, be parsed as a noun in neuter gender. But this is absurb. Parse *hers* as a personal pronoun, equivalent to *her book.*

Such disposition of pronouns does not violate any principles of Grammar.

Section 2.

DIAGRAM OF THE PRONOUN.



LESSON XXIX.

THE PARTICIPLE AND ITS USE.

What is a participle?

Ans.—A participle is a form of the verb which assumes or implies action or being. The word *participle* means *taking a part of, partaking.*

NOTE.—A participle is always derived from a verb, and it partakes of the use of a verb and of an adjective, or of a verb and a noun.

Give examples of participles.

Ans.—The man, *walking* on the beach, fell into the water.

A field, *plowed* early in the season, produces most grain.

How many and what are the participles?

Ans.—There are three participles: Present, Past and Compound.

What is the use of the present participle?

Ans.—The present participle is used to express continuance of action or being; as, loving, reading, moving.

What does a participle modify?

Ans.—A participle, like an adjective, always modifies some noun or pronoun.

Where is the participle usually found in the sentence, before or after the noun which it modifies?

Ans.—It is usually placed after the noun.

Give examples.

Ans.—The panther, *crouching,* prepared to spring upon its prey.

What does *crouching* modify in the sentence given above?

Ans.—It modifies the noun *panther.*

How does the present participle always end?

Ans.—It always ends in *ing.*

NOTE.—In the sentence, "Walking fatigues me," *walking* is not a participle, but is a verbal noun used as the subject of the sentence.

What is the use of the past participle?

Ans.—The past participle is used to express completion of action or being; as redeemed, surrounded, loved.

In the sentence, "The tree, stripped of its leaves, looked like a skeleton," which word is a participle?

Ans.—*Stripped* is a participle.

Why is "stripped" a participle?

Ans.—Because it is a form of the verb which implies or assumes action or being, and modifies the noun *tree.*

What kind of participle is "stripped?"

Ans.—*Stripped* is the past participle because it denotes completion of action.

Section 2.

What is the use of the compound participle?

Ans.—The compound participle denotes completion of action or being before or at the time represented by the verb.

Give examples of compound participles.

Ans.—Having written, having loved, having been loved.

Tell the kind of participles in the following sentences, and also tell what each modifies:

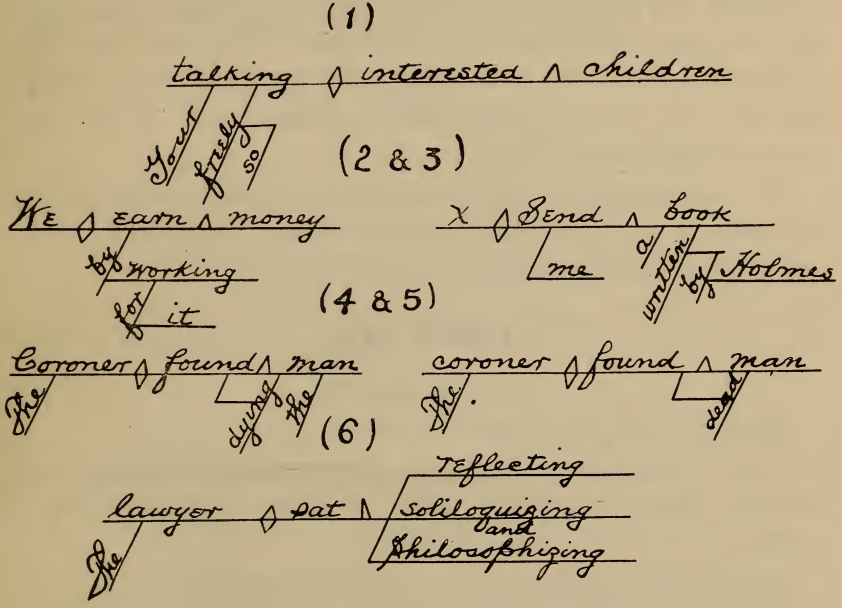
1. I saw the men working in the field.
2. Send me a book written by Holmes.
3. A house, beautifully furnished, makes a nice home.
4. The man died, respected by all who knew him.
5. The colonel having been captured, the regiment surrendered.

NOTE.—Be careful to distinguish between present or past participles, and verbs or parts of verbs. In the sentence," Jane is reading," *reading* is not a participle, but is a part of the verb *is reading,* in the progressive form. And in the sentence, "He is loved by all who know him," *loved* is not a participle, but is a part of the verb *is loved.*

Sentences illustrated by diagrams below:

1. Your talking so freely interested the children.
2. We earn money by working for it.
3. Send me a book written by Holmes.

4. The coroner found the man dying.
5. The coroner found the man dead.
6. The lawyer sat reflecting, soliloquizing and philosophizing.



The word "talking," in the first sentence, is a verbal noun, and in its noun use is modified by *your,* an adjective element. In its verbal use, "talking" is modified by *freely,* an adverbial element.

In the second sentence, "working," as a verbal noun, is the object of the proposition *by,* but in its verbal use, "working is modified by *for it,* an adverbial element.

The word "written," in the third sentence, is a participle modifying the noun *book,* and is modified by the phrase, *by Holmes,* an adverbial element.

The words "dying" and "dead" in the fourth and fifth sen-

tences, are adjective elements, yet they have an adverbial signification. The sentence does not mean that the coroner searched for the man and found him, but that *dying* or *dead* was his condition when examined. Therefore we blend the adjective and adverb uses and say that the coroner *found dying,* or *found dead* the man. See also: The clerk kept me waiting. I heard the bell tolling. The pupils came crowding around. She soon found the story growing old. I saw the men working in the field.

The sixth sentence has a compound predicate composed of the three participles, all of which modify the subject. The word "sat" is here used as a copulative verb.

LESSON XXX.

The Preposition.

What is a preposition?

Ans.—A preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun or pronoun, called its object, and some other word.

What is the meaning of the word "preposition?"

Ans.—*Preposition* means *something placed before.*

Give examples of the use of prepositions.

Ans.—He goes *to* school. They live *in* town.

Between what words does "to" show relation?

Ans.—It shows relation between *goes* and *school.*

What is the object of a preposition?

Ans.—The object of a preposition is the noun or pronoun which follows it in thought.

What is the object of the preposition "in," in the sentence, "They live in town?"

Ans.—*Town* is the object.

Name some prepositions.

Ans.—At, for, from, in, into, of, on, over, with, to, before.

Analyze or diagram the following sentences, and point out the nouns, pronouns, verbs, adverbs and prepositions. Between what words does each preposition show relation?

1. The book lies on the table.
2. Aunt Lucy lives over the hill on a farm.
3. Carlo went under the water above the mill-dam.
4. I shall look for you very early in the morning.
5. He resides in Parkersburg, but travels all over the state.
6. Men live in houses and read by light from electric lamps.

Note.—The word *all* in the fifth sentence is used as an adverb and modifies the phrase *over the state*.

LESSON XXXI.

The Conjunction.

Section 1.

What is a conjunction?

Ans.—A conjuntion is a word which connects independent words, phrases and clauses.

Give examples of the use of conjunctions.

Ans.—Lottie *and* Ida study Latin *and* Greek.

Neither James *nor* Edward was at the festival.

What words are conjunctions in the above sentences?

Ans.—The word *and* in the first sentence, and *neither* and *nor* in the second.

In the sentence "Herbert walks or rides every day," which word is a conjunction?

Ans.—*Or* is a conjunction and connects *walks* and *rides*.

NOTE.—There are two kinds of conjunctions: Coordinate and Subordinate conjunctions.

Define each kind of conjunctions.

Ans.—*Coordinates* connect elements of the same grade or rank; as, Men *and* women were present. *Subordinates* connect elements of different grades or ranks: as, He said *that* all was lost.

Name some conjunctions.

Ans.—And, if, or, that, nor, than, unless, still, yet, either-or.

Point out the nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions in the following sentences:

1. The boys and girls started home early.
2. I will go away tomorrow if I go at all.
3. William did not come, for he was very sick.
4. John and Henry study and recite Grammar and Rhetoric.
5. I remember part of it, but I do not remember the entire sentence.
6. We will go and help you with the work if you will help us in return.
7. If the weather changes soon, it may either snow or rain.

Section 2.

THE INTERJECTION.

What is an interjection?

Ans.—An interjection is a word used to express surprise, fear, anger, indignation or other strong emotion.

Name some interjections.

Ans.—Ah, O, oh, alas, indeed, pshaw, adieu, hark, aha, farewell.

Where is the interjection usually found in a sentence?
Ans.—At or near the beginning of the sentence.

Give examples of the use of interjections.
Ans.—O John, you should not do so.
Pshaw, there is not a word of truth in it.

Section 3.

The following unique and poetical list of the parts of speech, together with a definition for each, is taken from one of Dr. Miles' publications:

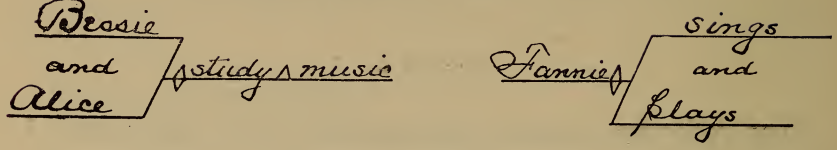
THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Three little words you often see
Are articles—"a," "an" and "the."
A noun's the name of anything,
As "house" or "garden," "hoop" or "swing."
Instead of nouns the pronouns stand,
"Her" head, "your" face, "his" arm, "my" hand.
Adjectives tell the kind of noun,
"As "great," "small," "pretty," "white" or "brown."
A preposition stands before
A noun, as "in" or "through" the door.
Verbs tell of something to be done—
To "sing" or "laugh," "jump," "skip" or "run."
How things are done the adverbs tell,
As "slowly," "quickly," "ill" or "well."
Conjunctions join the words together,
As men "or" women, wind "and" weather.
An interjection shows surprise,
As "Oh!" how pretty! "Ah!" how wise!
The whole are called nine parts of speech,
Which reading, writing and speaking teach.

Model Diagrams.

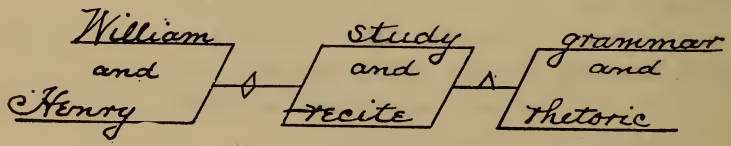
Section 4.

Sentences: Bessie and Alice study music.
Fannie sings and plays.

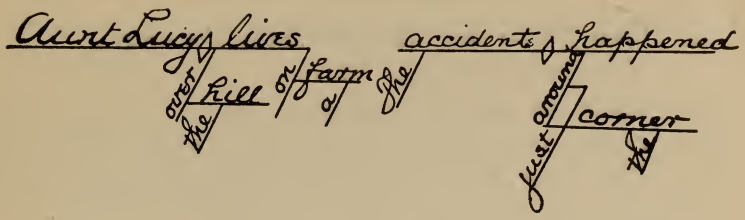


Observe the arrangement of compound subject and compound predicate in the sentences illustrated above.

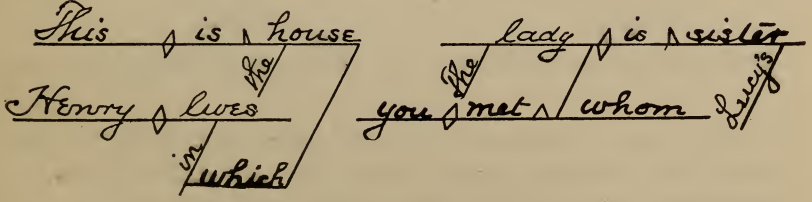
Sentence: William and Henry study and recite grammar and rhetoric.



By this system of diagrams all lines are drawn by natural movements of the hand.



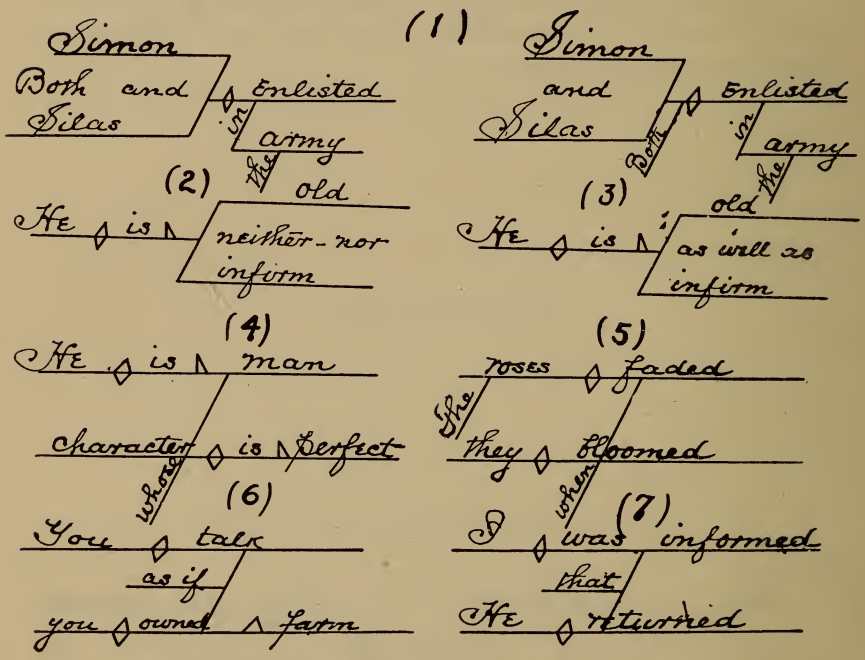
These two diagrams illustrate the arrangement of prepositional phrases used as modifiers. The word "just" modifies the phrase *around the corner.*



Relative pronouns should always be so placed on the diagram that an oblique line may extend from each to its antecedent, as is clearly shown on these two diagrams.

Sentences Diagramed.

1. Both Simon and Silas enlisted in the army.
2. He is neither old nor infirm.
3. He is old as well as infirm.
4. He is a man whose character is perfect.
5. The roses faded where they bloomed.
6. You talk as if you owned the farm.
7. I was informed that he returned.



When two conjunctions are used together like "both—and" in the first sentence given above, they are called correlative conjunctions, because one introduces words and the other connects them. When the words thus connected are nouns the introductory conjunction may be parsed as an adjective modifying both nouns, as shown on the diagram.

"Neither—nor," as used in the second sentence, are correlative conjunctions. *Neither* introduces the adjective predicates and *nor* connects them.

"As well as," in the third sentence, has the force of a single word and is a conjunction connecting the two adjectives used as a compound predicate.

"Whose," in the fourth sentence is a relative pronoun in the possessive case, and as such, not only connects the two propositions, but also modifies the noun *character*.

"Where," in the fifth sentence, is a conjunctive adverb connecting the two propositions, and modifies both verbs.

"As if" and "that," in the sixth and seventh sentences, are pure conjunctions, and have no other use than to connect the principal and subordinate propositions.

Composition Writing.

Section 5.

All the parts of speech have now been introduced, and pupils should next learn to use words, phrases and clauses in sentences. They should learn to form paragraphs, sections and complete productions. Composition writing should be commenced as soon as pupils have obtained a fair knowledge of the principles of grammar. At first, nothing more than the writing of short sentences should be undertaken. They should exercise due care in the selection and arrangement of words to express the thought in plain language. Refer to chapters on capitalization and punctuation in the back part of this book. The purpose of this chapter is to teach pupils to think, and to express their thoughts by the use of appropriate words. The wise teacher will require thoroughness in all preliminary mat-

ters relating to the correct expression of thought in sentences and paragraphs.

The very name *composition* seems to have a depressing effect upon most pupils. They soon exhaust their vocabulary of words and become discouraged. This dread may be overcome, and this treatise on composition writing is intended to aid pupils in acquiring a more extensive vocabulary.

Sentences should be written in different ways. The thought should be expressed by the use of different words. Do not feel satisfied with one writing, but re-write it a number of times; for by repeated effort in this manner pupils will soon more than double the number of words at their command.

A good plan for beginners is to read some interesting story, and then write it out in their own words. Do not expect them to be original in the first work along this line. Let them take a poem and write the thought it contains in prose. This is called paraphrasing.

The "Old Home," by T. B. Read, is a good selection for practice of this kind:

"Between broad fields of wheat and corn.
Is the lowly home where I was born;
The peach-tree leans against the wâll,
And the woodbine wanders over all.
There is the barn,—and as of yore,
I can smell the hay from the open door,
And see the busy swallows throng,
And hear the peewee's mournful song.
Oh, ye who daily cross the sill,
Step lightly, for I love it still!
And when you crowd the old barn eaves,
Then think what countless harvest sheaves
Have passed within that scented door,
To gladden eyes that are no more."

Description should have special attention. Let pupils write all they can about the object, then suggest thoughts so that when the production is re-written it will be lengthened and enlarged.

In describing persons or objects, keep in mind what you wish to do. Think, think, think. Rely upon your own observation and knowledge until you feel the need of something more, and then refer to books or periodicals for further information. See, hear, feel, taste, smell. Any of the five senses may aid in describing objects. Always keep the subject in sight.

Write a description of the following:

A Desk; A Wagon; A Lead Pencil; A School House; An Orange.

Write compositions choosing subjects from the following:

A Birthday Party; A Night in the Woods; Caught in a Storm; My First Visit; Climbing the Mountain; Christmas Holidays; A Visit to the Capital.

Write compositions selecting your own subjects.

Study the following description of "A Yorkshire Forest Scene," by Sir Walter Scott:

"The sun was setting upon one of the rich, grassy glades of the forest. Hundreds of broad-headed, short-stemmed, wide-branched oaks, which had witnessed, perhaps, the stately march of the Roman soldiery, flung their gnarled arms over a thick carpet of the most delicious greensward. In some places they were intermingled with beeches, hollies, and copswood of various descriptions, so closely as totally to intercept the level beams of the sinking sun; in others, they receded from each other, forming those long sweeping vistas, in the intricacy of which the eye delights to lose itself, while imagination considers them as the paths to yet wilder scenes of

sylvan solitude. Here, the red rays of the sun shot a broken and discolored light that partially hung upon the shattered boughs and mossy trunks of the trees; and there, they illuminated, in brilliant patches, the portions of turf to which they made their way.

A considerable open space in the midst of this glade seemed formerly to have been dedicated to the rights of Druidical superstition; for, on the summit of a hillock so regular as to seem artificial, there still remained part of a circle of rough unhewn stones of large dimensions. Seven stood upright; the rest had been dislodged from their places, probably by the zeal of some convert to Christianty, and lay, some prostrate near their former site, and others on the side of the hill. One large stone only had found its way to the bottom; and, in stopping the course of a small brook which glided smoothly round the foot of the eminence, gave, by its opposition, a feeble voice of murmur to the placid, and elsewhere silent streamlet."

Pupils write more readily from information obtained by reading or from observation. A good plan is to have them read the life of some prominent person, and then to write a biography of that person. A biography is a life history of an individual written by somebody else.

Read the life history of the following noted persons, and write a biography of each:

Benjamin Franklin; George W. Dewey; Patrick Henry; Queen Elizabeth; Joan of Arc; William McKinley; Mary Queen of Scotts.

Sample Outline of a Biography.

I. Theme—Benjamin Franklin.
1. His Early Life.
2. Birth.

3. Childhood.
4. Youth.
5. Manhood.

II. His after Life.
1. Occupation.
2. Difficulties.
3. Successes and Failures.
4. Death.

Chapter on Letter Writing.

Section 6.

A letter is a kind of composition, and while pupils are learning to construct sentences and paragraphs, they readily learn to use them in neatly written letters.

A good plan is to have pupils write to some absent friend or even to the teacher, herself, and then examine the letter according to the following directions: Place a neatly written letter on the blackboard. Explain and illustrate each part of the letter. Require pupils to copy it a number of times, noting the arrangement of the date, the introduction, the body of the letter, and the closing of the same. Require them to reproduce each part of the letter itself, following this by a complete reproduction of the entire letter.

Parts of a Letter.

What is the first part of a letter called?

Ans.—It is called the *heading*.

What does the heading of a letter usually contain?

Ans.—The name of the writer's post office, the name of the state in which he lives, and the date. If the writer lives in

a city, the door or house number and name of the street are often given. A person in Cincinnati would use the following *heading*:

Cincinnati, Ohio, March 8, 1899.

Or two lines may be used:

Cincinnati, Ohio,
March 8, 1899.

When two lines are used, what part of the heading is placed on the second line?

Ans.—The name of the month, the day of the month and the year.

How should the heading of a letter be punctuated?

Ans.—A comma should be placed after the name of the post office, one after the name of the state, and one after the day of the month. A period should be placed after the year.

FORMS OF HEADINGS.

(1) Columbus, Ohio, June 10, 1899.

(2) Columbus, Ohio,
May 10, 1899.

Sometimes the name of a college or other institution is made a part of the heading:

(3) Union College,
Pittsburg, Pa.,
July 4, 1899.

(4) 18 Center Street, Weston, W. Va.,
February 25, 1900.

What is the second part of a letter called?

Ans.—It is called the *introduction.*

What does the introduction usually contain?

Ans.—The name of the person to whom the letter is written, the name of his post office, the name of the state in which he lives, and appropriate words of salutation; as—

Joseph Allen, Esq.,
Pittsburg, Pa.
My Dear Sir,

Is there any exception to this form?

Ans.—Yes; when writing to relatives or to intimate friends, the name of the post office and state may be omitted, and only appropriate words of salutation used; as—

(1) Dear Mother,

(2) My Dear Sister,

(3) Mr. John Dolan,
Portland, Me.
Dear Sir,—I am in receipt of yours &c.

(4) Mrs. Julia Hanson,
Louisville, Ky.
Dear Madam,

(5) Lawton & Co.,

20 Vesey St.,

New York City.

Gentlemen:—Yours of recent date &c.

How should the introduction be punctuated?

Ans.—A comma should be placed after the name of the person or firm, and one after the name of the post office. A period should be placed after the name of the state.

What should be placed after the word or words of salutation, as, Dear Sir, or Dear Friend?

Ans.—When the body of the letter begins on the same line, the colon and dash, or comma and dash should be used.

When the body of the letter begins on the line below the salutation, what should be used?

Ans.—The comma or colon should be used when the body of the letter begins on the line below the words of salutation.

NOTE.—It is considered good usage, however, to use the comma and dash, or colon and dash, even when the body of the letter begins on the line below the salutation.

Miss Lucy Overfield,

Providence, R. I.

Dear Friend,—(Begin here.) Also;

Dear Friend:—(Begin here.) Or;

Dear Friend,

(Begin here.) Also;

Dear Friend:

(Begin here.)

Dear Uncle James,—(Begin here.) Or;

Dear Uncle James,

(Begin here.) .....

What is the third part of a letter called?

Ans.—It is called the body of the letter, and contains the information the writer wishes to convey.

What is the last part of a letter called?

Ans.—It is called the conclusion, and contains the closing words and the signature of the writer; as—

(1) Very truly,
William Jones.

———o———

(2) Yours respectfully,
Dan Johnson.

Sometimes the address of the writer is placed after his signature, or near the left margin of the page; as —

(3) Very truly yours,
Ben Burchard,
14 Madison Ave.,
Albany, N. Y.

———o———

Or, (4)

14 Madison Ave., Very truly yours,
Albany, N. Y. Ben Burchard.

———o———

(5) With best wishes, I am,
Yours very truly,
(Name) ....

What is the writing on the envelope called?

Ans.—It is called the *superscription,* or *address.*

What does it contain?

Ans.—It contains the name and address of the person to whom the letter is written.

FORM OF SUPERSCRIPTION.

Stamp

Mr. Ezra Martin,
Jacksonville,
W. Va.

Stamp

Rev. W. H. Robertson,
Jarvisville,
Harrison. Co., West Virginia.

A BUSINESS LETTER.

Weston, West Virginia,
Dec. 17, 1899.

American Book Co.,
Cincinnati, Ohio.

Gentlemen,

We are anxious to obtain the "Franklin Spelling Blanks"

for use in our school. Prof. Wilkinson informs us that your company can furnish them at greatly reduced prices. If so, you will please send 500 copies at once, and oblige,

Yours truly,

(Name) .....

Social notes of invitation, regret or acceptance, are expressed in third person, and the time and place of writing is placed below the body of the note and at the left-hand side.

(1)

Mrs. Dunnington requests the presence of Prof. Wethered at dinner on Saturday next at 5 o'clock.

14 Main St.,

June 4.

(Answer)

Mr. Wethered accepts with pleasure Mrs. Dunnington's invitation to dinner on Saturday next.

Bailey House,

June 3.

(2)

Mr. R. Allen presents his respects to Miss Bassell and asks the pleasure of her company to the Festival on Monday evening.

Camden Hotel,

June 20.

(Answer)

Miss Bassel presents her compliments to Mr. Allen, and regrets that sickness will prevent her acceptance of his invitation Monday evening.

Hospital,

June 18.

Mothers Excuse of Son at School.

Will Miss White be kind enough to excuse Anson Mason from school at three o'clock today, and greatly oblige his mother.

17 Center St.,
Thursday noon.

Letter of Introduction.

Parkersburg, W. Va., June 1, 1900.

(Name omitted here)
My dear Sir,

This will introduce to you my friend C. H. Poling, a carpenter and brick mason, and a resident of Clarksburg. Any favors shown him during his stay in your city will be esteemed as a personal favor by

Your friend,
Isaac Noble.

On the envelope containing the above letter should be written:

(Name of Person to receive it)

Clarksburg,

West Virginia.

Introducing Mr. C. H. Poling.

PART II.

LESSON XXXII.

Section 1.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS, continued.

What is meant by a property or form of any part of speech?
Ans.—It means anything that belongs to that part of speech.

What properties have nouns and pronouns?
Ans.—Nouns and pronouns have four properties: Number, Person, Gender and Case.

What is number? (See Lesson VI)

What is person? (See Lesson VI)

Analyze or diagram the following sentences, and name all the parts of speech. In what number and person is each noun and pronoun used?

1. John, where is your slate and pencil?
2. Jessie is a good artist, and she paints beautiful pictures.
3. America is a great country and is ruled without a king.
4. Children should obey their parents and teachers.
5. Young men, you should not spend your time in idleness.
6. Mothers are often too kind to their sons and daughters.
7. You, he and I should be more careful in selecting friends.
8. The Americans and the Spaniards had a little dispute.
9. Nations often resort to arms when it is not wise to do so.
10. Where vegetation is abundant, there is no drought.
11. The entwining vine will sap the vitality of the strongest oak, and weeds choke the life out of the growing grain.

Section 2.

Gender of Nouns and Pronouns.

What is gender?

Ans.—Gender is that form of nouns and pronouns which distinguishes males from females.

How many and what genders have nouns and pronouns?

Ans.—There are four genders: Masculine, Feminine, Common and Neuter.

Note.—Strictly speaking, there are only two genders, male and female; but for more extended classification, we add *common* and *neuter*. *Common gender* means belonging to either or both sexes, and *neuter gender* means belonging to neither sex. Neuter gender really means no gender.

To what kind of names does the masculine gender apply?

Ans.—It applies to names of males; as, man, boy, son, brother.

To what kind of names does the feminine gender apply?

Ans.—It applies to names of females; as, girl, woman, sister, mother.

To what kind of names does the common gender apply?

Ans.—It applies to names of males or females, or both; as, parent, children, audience, company.

To what kind of names does the neuter gender apply?

Ans.—It applies to names of objects without life; as, book, desk, pen, house, street.

Name the gender of all nouns and pronouns in the sentences under Section 1 of this lesson.

LESSON XXXIII.

Case of Nouns and Pronouns.

What is meant by "case" of nouns and pronouns?

Ans.—Case means certain uses or functions of nouns and pronouns. The case of a noun or pronoun shows its use, whether it is used as the subject, the predicate, or an object; or whether it denotes possession.

Note.—Observe the different uses of the nouns in the following:

1. *Liquids* flow.
2. William is a *mechanic.*
3. Henry writes *Latin.*
4. *Jason,* prepare your lesson.
5. *Hattie's* slate is broken.

These functions or uses of nouns and pronouns are called cases.

How many and what cases have nouns and pronouns?

Ans.—Four: Nominative, Possessive, Objective and Independent.

What is the use to which the nominative case is applied?

Ans.—The nominative case is the use of a noun or pronoun as subject or predicate of a proposition.

In the sentence, "Roses bloom," in what case is "roses"?

Ans.—*Roses* is in the nominative case, because it is used as the subject of the sentence.

In the sentence, "Sheep are animals," in what case is "animals"?

Ans.—*Animals* is in the nominative case, because it is used as the predicate of the sentence.

NOTE.—*Nouns* may also be in the nominative case by apposition, that is, by meaning the same person or thing as a noun already in the nominative case.

Give an example of a noun in the nominative case by apposition.

Ans.—Joseph, the banker, is sick. Here *banker* is in the nominative case by apposition, because it means the same person as the name *Joseph,* which is already in the nominative case.

NOTE.—A noun may also be in apposition with a pronoun; as, "He, the sailor, told a sorrowful tale." Here the noun *sailor* is in apposition with the pronoun *he.*

Refer to sentences in LESSON XIII, Section 3, and point out all nouns and pronouns that are in the nominative case.

LESSON XXXIV.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

What is the use of the possessive case?

Ans.—The possessive case is used to denote possession, authorship or ownership.

Give examples of nouns or pronouns in the possessive case.

Ans.—This is a copy of *White's* Grammar.

The *boy's* hat was left in *my* room.

In the sentence, "Henry's horse ran away," which noun is in the possessive case, and why?

Ans.—*Henry's* is in the possessive case because it denotes ownership.

What kind of elements or modifiers are nouns and pronouns in the possessive case?

Ans.—They are adjective elements and modify the name of the thing possessed.

How is the possessive case usually formed?

Ans.—By annexing the *'s* to the nominative singular; as, John's pen.

By annexing the apostrophe only to the nominative plural ending in *s*; as, The Teachers' association; Boys' hats.

By annexing the *'s* to plural nouns not ending with *s;* as, Men's wages; Children's toys.

Name the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences that are in the nominative and possessive cases, and tell how each is used:

1. James reads very well.
2. Mr. Bower repairs ladies' shoes neatly.
3. The nation's honor depends upon her people.
4. The sun's rays are warm in summer.
5. Mary's slate was broken by a little boy.
6. His lesson is easier than mine or yours.
7. The child's face was pale and its limbs were cold.

Subjects for Composition.

A Day in the Woods.
A Trip to the Mountains.
Independence Day.
(Select other subjects.)

Change the nouns in the possessive case in the following sentences to equivalent phrases consisting of a preposition and its object.

1. Prof. Johnson's death occurred Oct. 20, 1900.
2. A mother's love endures forever.
3. The company's capital stock increased rapidly.
4. A nation's wealth can not be estimated in dollars and cents.

5. Helen's new hat and Josie's new bonnet are beautiful.
6. Our friend's departure was a surprise to us all.

Ex.—The death of Prof. Johnson occurred Oct. 20, 1900.

LESSON XXXV.

Note.—Before entering into the merits of this lesson, pupils should review LESSON XIV and LESSON XXX, which treat of transitive verbs and prepositions.

Objective Case.

Name the uses of the objective case.

Ans.—The objective case is used to denote that the person or object named is acted upon, or is the object of a preposition.

In the sentence, "The ball struck the vessel," in what case is "vessel"?

Ans.—*Vessel* is in the objective case.

Why is "vessel" in the objective case?

Ans.—Because it is the name of the object acted upon.

What kind of verb is "struck"?

Ans.—It is a transitive verb.

What is the object of the verb "struck"?

Ans.—*Vessel* is the object because the action expressed by the verb passes to and acts upon *vessel.*

In the sentence, "James lives in a new house," in what case is "house"?

Ans.—*House* is in the objective case.

Tell why "house" is in the objective case?

Ans.—It is the name which follows the preposition *in* in thought.

What kind of elements are nouns and pronouns in the objective case after transitive verbs?

Ans.—They are objective elements.

Refer to LESSONS XIV and XXX, and point out all nouns and pronouns that are in the nominative, possessive or objective case.

LESSON XXXVI.

Independent Case.

Section 1.

What is the use of the independent case?

Ans.—The independent case is used to show that the noun has no connection with other words; that is, it is used independently.

Give examples of nouns in the independent case.

Ans.—In the sentence, "James, your watch is too fast," the word *James* has no dependence upon any word or words in the sentence, and is, therefore, in the independent case. Also in the sentence, "O John! you are so careless," *John* has no dependence upon any word or words in the sentence, and is in the independent case by exclamation.

What is the meaning of the word "independent" as here used?

Ans.—It means *alone,* not joined to or connected with any other words in the sentence.

In the sentence, "John, bring me your slate," why is the word "John" used at all, if it has no dependence upon other words?

Ans.—The name *John* is spoken simply to attract his attention.

Note.—Nouns may be in the independent case in five ways:

1. By address; as, Sarah, where are you?

2. By exclamation; as, O William! why did you go?

3. By using the noun or pronoun to which reference is made in the sentence, *before* the sentence itself; as, John! I shall not give him a penny.

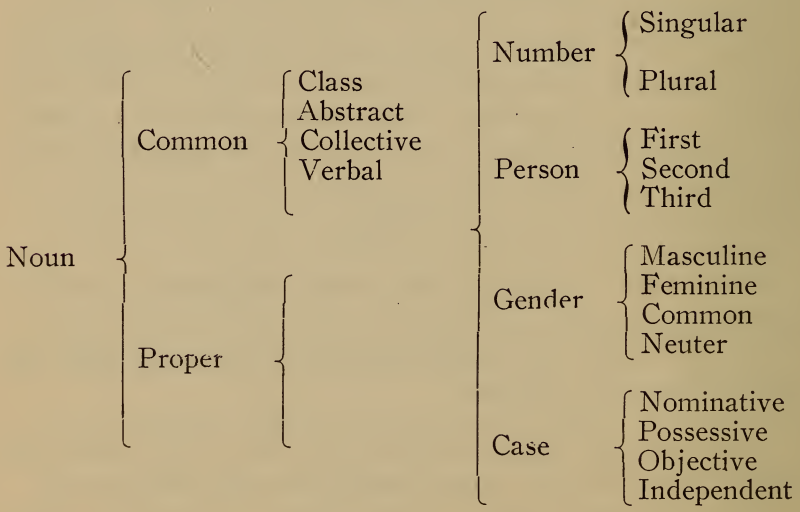
This use of the noun is called *pleonasm.*

4. By using the noun with a participle; as, Darkness coming on, we adjourned the meeting.

5. By using the noun as the heading of a section or chapter; as, *Independence Day.* Or by using it as part of the address on an envelope; as, *Lucy Anderson,* Chicago, Ill.

Diagram of the Noun.

Section 2.



Note.—The classification of nouns into Class, Abstract, Collective and Verbal nouns enables us to understand more fully the properties of the various kinds of nouns.

A Class noun is an ordinary name that applies to any one of a class or kind; as, man, house, town, book.

An Abstract noun is the name of a quality or condition; as, goodness, wisdom, vanity, sobriety, whiteness.

A Collective noun is the name of a group or collection; as, jury, people, family, herd, army.

A Verbal noun is the name of an action; as, singing, running, cheering, writing.

LESSON XXXVII.

NOTE.—Pupils have learned to parse nouns without reference to any outlined order or model of parsing. This plan is the best that could be adopted. To secure uniformity, however, in naming the properties of nouns, the following order of parsing is given:

ORDER OF PARSING NOUNS.

1. Common or Proper.
2. Number.
3. Person.
4. Gender.
5. Case.
6. Name its use as subject, predicate, object, or in apposition.

NOTE.—Refer to sentences given in preceding lessons for a more extensive drill in parsing nouns. This phase of the work is an important one and should not be neglected. Call it technical grammar or what you please, but do not neglect frequent drills in parsing and analysis. It is because of such neglect that so many teachers fail in teaching this important branch.

LESSON XXXVIII.

Case of Pronouns. Declension.

Section 1.

How may the case of pronouns be determined?
Ans.—By declension and use.

What is "declension"?
Ans.—*Declension* is a variation of the pronoun to denote number and case.

What cases are used in declining pronouns?
Ans.—Nominative, Possessive and Objective.

Give examples of declension of pronouns.
Ans.—Nominative *I,* Possessive *my* or *mine,* Objective *me.*

Note.—Nouns may also be declined; as, Nominative *boy,* Possessive *boy's,* Objective *boy.* It is not necessary, however, to decline nouns.

Declension of Simple Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON.

SINGULAR		PLURAL.
I,	Nominative,	We,
My or mine,	Possessive,	Our or ours,
Me,	Objective,	Us.

SECOND PERSON.

Thou,	Nominative,	Ye,
Thy or thine,	Possessive,	Your or yours,
Thee,	Objective,	You.

ALSO:

You,	Nominative,	You.
Your or yours	Possessive,	Your or yours,
You,	Objective,	You,

THIRD PERSON.

He, she, it,	Nominative,	They,
His, her or hers, its,	Possessive,	Their or theirs,
Him, her, it,	Objective,	Them.

Declension of Compound Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON.

SINGULAR		PLURAL.
Myself,	Nominative,	Ourselves,
Myself,	Objective,	Ourselves.

Note.—Compound personals are declined in two cases only.

SECOND PERSON.

Thyself or, Yourself,	Nominative,	Yourselves,
Thyself or, Yourself,	Objective,	Yourselves.

THIRD PERSON.

Himself, Herself, Itself,	Nominative,	Themselves,
Himself, Herself, Itself,	Objective,	Themselves.

Section 2.

Two relative and interrogative pronouns are declined as follows; and they may be used in first, second or third person:

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Who,	Nominative,	Who,
Whose,	Possessive,	Whose,
Whom,	Objective,	Whom.

Which,	Nominative,	Which,
Whose,	Possessive,	Whose,
Which,	Objective,	Which.

Order of Parsing Pronouns.

1. Personal, Relative or Interrogative.
2. Simple or Compound.
3. Name its antecedent or subsequent.
4. Number, Person, Gender and Case.
5. Give its Declension.
6. Name its use; whether subject, predicate or object.

Note.—Refer to sentences under the several classes of pronouns for practice in parsing pronouns.

LESSON XXXIX.

Mistakes in the Use of Pronouns.

Section 1.

Correct the following sentences and give reasons for the changes you make.

1. Him and me both study Latin.
2. Let us divide the peaches between you and I.
3. Who broke the window? It was me.
4. There was some trouble between the teacher and I.
5. Me and Lucy went to church.
6. Whom solved this problem? It was me.
7. Let you and I go to the show to-night.
8. Him and I and you will go.

Note.—When pronouns of different persons are used in the same sentence, the one in second person should precede the third, and the third should precede the first; as, You, he and I will go. This is because courtesy or politeness requires us to

give the person spoken to the first place or first recognition, and ourselves the last place or reference.

Section 2.

Tell the number, person, gender and case of all nouns and pronouns in the following sentences:

1. Daniel Webster was a great statesman.
2. West Virginia is a great state.
3. Harry gave his pencil to Edward.
4. The train killed a number of men.
5. Her visitor did not remain long.
6. Merchants sell goods to their customers.
7. Frederick, why did you not go to school today?
8. Tell us, Edith, whom you met at the railroad station.
9. The little robin is in its nest.
10. Miss Howard, the teacher, lost her gold watch.

Subjects for Composition.

The Revolutionary War.
Difficulties of Acquiring an Education.
The Duties of an American Citizen.
(Select other subjects.)

LESSON XL.

Note.—Review LESSONS XIII, XIV and XV before taking up these more advanced lessons.

Properties of Verbs.

Section 1.

What properties have verbs?

Ans.—*Verbs* have five properties: Number, Person, Tense, Voice and Mode. (The first two of these properties have already been explained.)

What is tense?

Ans.—*Tense* is that form of the verb which denotes the time in which an act is performed.

Give examples of the tense of verbs.

Ans.—I *walk;* I *walked;* I *have walked;* I *shall walk.*

What does the word "tense" mean?

Ans.—*Tense* means *time.*

How many and what tenses have verbs?

Ans.—Verbs have six tenses: Present, Present Perfect, Past, Past Perfect, Future and Future Perfect.

What does the present tense express?

Ans.—It expresses action performed in present time.

Give examples of the use of present tense.

Ans.—Mary *sings.* The grass *is growing.*

What does the present perfect tense express?

Ans.—It expresses past or completed action as connected with present time.

Give examples of the use of present perfect tense.

Ans.—The pupils *have recited.* Our teacher *has returned.*

What does the word "perfect" mean?

Ans.—It means *completed, finished.*

How may the present perfect tense usually be known?

Ans.—By the use of *have, hast* or *has* with any principal verb.

Section 2.

What does the past tense express?

Ans.—It expresses action completed in past time.

Give examples of the use of past tense.
Ans.—The birds *sang*. Her pupils *recited*.

What does the past perfect tense express?
Ans.—It expresses action as completed before the time referred to by the verb.

Give examples of the use of past perfect tense.
Ans.—They *had gone* before I arrived. He *had* already *solved* his problem.

How may the past perfect tense usually be known?
Ans.—By the use of *had* or *hadst* with any principal verb.

What does the future tense express?
Ans.—It expresses action to be completed in time to come.

Give examples of the use of future tense.
Ans.—I *shall go*. They *will return*.

How may the future tense usually be known?
Ans.—By the use of *shall* with any principal verb in first person, and *will* with any principal verb is second or third person.

NOTE.—*Shall* is used in second and third persons to denote necessity. *Will* is used in first person to denote determination.

What does the future perfect tense express?
Ans.—It expresses action to be completed before a specified time in the future.

Give examples of the use of future perfect tense.
Ans.—I *shall have completed* my task by noon. He *will have rested* before the train arrives.

How may the future perfect tense usually be known?

Ans.—By the use of *shall have* or *will have* with any principal verb.

NOTE.—Remember that verbs must agree with their subjects in number and person.

SENTENCES FOR GENERAL REVIEW OF THE TENSES.

1. Mary reads good books and writes fine essays.
2. The apples look ripe, but they do not feel mellow.
3. The members of the Legislature gave no thought to the effects of their action.
4. Who has ever seen a more beautiful landscape?
5. He wishes to know whether you intend to return his property.
6. I have sworn that I will not return it unless he shall grant my request.
7. This new volume is marked by many original features which will commend it to teachers and pupils.
8. A common book will often give you amusement, but it is only a noble book that will give you dear friends.
9. The roof of the cavern was thickly set with diamonds and other precious stones, which sparkled and shone like thousands of bright stars in the blue sky.
10. If our perceptions be clear, the walking in wisdom's way will direct us to the prospect and goal of lofty attainments.
11. Human nature has its metes and bounds, and its limitations are distinctly marked to those who have eyes to see, and minds to reflect.
12. The creation of a new Republic, upon a basis of equality and fraternity, had a powerful effect upon the French people whose active aid had made success of the American arms inevitable.

LESSON XLI.

Section 1.

What is voice?

Ans.—*Voice* is that form of transitive verbs which shows whether the subject performs or receives the action expressed by the verb; that is, whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

Give examples of the use of voice.

Ans.—John *teased* James. Here the subject John acts upon somebody else (James), and the verb is said to be in the active voice. In the sentence, "John was teased by James," the subject *John* is acted upon by somebody else, and the verb is said to be in the passive voice.

How many and what voices have transitive verbs?

Ans.—Transitive verbs have two voices: Active and Passive.

What does the active voice represent?

Ans.—It represents the subject of the verb as acting upon an object.

Give examples of the use of the active voice.

Ans.—John *wrote* a letter. Here *wrote* is in the active voice because it represents the subject *John* as acting upon the object *letter.*

What does the passive voice represent?

Ans.—It represents the subject of the verb as being acted upon by something else.

Give examples of the use of verbs in the passive voice.

Ans.—The lesson *was recited* by Sarah. Here *was recited* is in the passive voice because it represents its subject *lesson,* as being acted upon.

NOTE.—Remember that only transitive verbs have voice.

Write three sentences containing transitive verbs in the active voice.

Write three sentences containing transitive verbs in the passive voice.

Model: The man plowed the field. (Active)
The field was plowed by the man. (Passive)

NOTE.—Transitive verbs sometimes have two objects; one is called the direct, and the other the indirect object; as, Harvey, bring me your book. Here *book* is the direct object, and *me* is the indirect object. Most indirect objects may be parsed in the objective case after a preposition understood; as, Harvey, bring (to) *me* your book.

Transitive verbs sometimes have two objects, one of which is in apposition with the other; as, They elected Roland captain. Here *captain* is in the objective case by apposition with Roland. When a verb, followed by two objects, as in this sentence, is changed to passive form, it loses its transitive use and becomes a copulative verb whenever the noun denoting rank or office is used after the verb, and the other noun is used as the subject of the sentence; as, Roland was elected captain. The word *captain* is now used as the predicate of the sentence, and *was elected* is a copulative verb.

Section 2.

MODE OF VERBS.

What is the meaning of the word "mode"?

Ans.—*Mode* means *manner* or *way*.

What is mode as applied to verbs?

Ans.—Mode is that form of the verb which shows the manner or way of expressing action or being; as,

James *writes* to his sister frequently.
James *may write* this evening.

If James *write,* he will be pleased.

James, *write* to your sister.

James likes *to write.*

By examining the above sentences we find that the action expressed by the verb *write* is stated in different ways (modes). In the first sentence *write* is used simply to *indicate* or express a fact, and the verb is said to be in the indicative mode.

In the second sentence, *may write* expresses possibility of writing, or permission to write, and it is said to be in the potential mode.

In the third sentence the action signified by *write* is expressed in a doubtful or conditional manner (mode), denoted by the word *if* preceding it, and the verb is said to be in the subjunctive mode.

In the fourth sentence, *write* expresses a command or request, and the verb is said to be in the imperative mode.

In the last sentence, *to write* expresses action in a general way, without reference to any agent or subject, and the verb is said to be in the infinitive mode.

Thus we see, action may be expressed in different manner or ways, and these different ways of expressing thought are called modes.

How many and what modes have verbs?

Ans.—*Verbs* have five modes: Indicative, Subjunctive, Potential, Imperative and Infinitive.

What is the use of the indicative mode?

Ans.—The indicative mode is used to express action or being as existing, or as an accepted truth.

Give examples of verbs in the indicative mode.

Ans.—The moon *shines.*. Water *flows.*

What is the use of the subjunctive mode?

Ans.—The subjunctive mode is used to express action or being as doubtful or conditional.

Give examples of verbs in the subjunctive mode.

Ans.—I would go if I *had* time. I shall not go unless he *return.*

How may the subjunctive mode usually be known?

Ans.—By the signs *if, though, except, unless,* and a few others.

Section 3.

The following observations should be carefully studied:

Subjunctive means *subjoined;* that is, added to in a subordinate manner. *Sub* means *under* or *lower,* and *subordinate* means *of a lower* order. This mode is called subjunctive because the clause in which the verb is used, is subjoined or added to the principal proposition as a modifying clause. The subjunctive mode also expresses contingency, possibility or chance of happening.

NOTE.—Some authors draw a very fine distinction between the verb in the subjunctive, and the verb in the indicative mode; as, If it rains (now), indicative, I shall not go. And, If it rain (tomorrow), subjunctive, I will not go.

The evil of this finely drawn distinction is, that even the best writers and speakers frequently fail to observe it. The rule should be, that when doubt or uncertainty in the writer's knowledge of the fact,—not uncertainty as to the fact itself,—exists in his mind, he should express that doubt by using the subjunctive mode.

But when no doubt is felt or to be intimated, the thought should be expressed in the indicative mode, leaving out or omitting the signs which indicate the subjunctive mode, and substituting appropriate words as *when, because* or *as.* This would secure simplicity and uniformity—two qualities which are essential to the perfection of any language.

Section 4.

What is the use of the potential mode?

Ans.—The potential mode is used to express the duty, power or necessity of acting or being as indicated by the verb.

Give examples of verbs in the potential mode.

Ans.—Lucy *can write.* You *may go.*

What does the word "potential" mean?

Ans.—It means *having power* or *ability,* and this mode is so called because it is frequently used to express this meaning.

How may the potential mode usually be known?

Ans.—By the use of *may, can, must, might, could, would* or *should* with any principal verb.

Give examples of any of these words used with a principal verb.

Ans.—They *can perform* the work. That is, they have the power or ability to perform it. I *should go;* that is, I am under obligations or promise to go.

What is the use of the imperative mode?

Ans.—The imperative mode is used to express a command, a wish, an entreaty or an exhortation.

Give examples of verbs used in the imperative mode.

Ans.—*Let* us see. *Be quiet. Bring* me flowers.

What does the word "imperative" mean?

Ans.—*Imperative* means commanding, and this use of the verb is called the imperative mode because it is frequently used to express a command or an entreaty.

NOTE.—A *command* is given by one in a higher to one in a lower position. A *request* is made between equals. An *entreaty* is usually made by one in a lower to one in a higher station. *Exhortation* means *advice.*

How may the imperative mode usually be known?

Ans.—By the omission of the subject of the verb.

Give examples.

Ans.—Willie, *be* careful. Here the subject *you* is omitted, and is said to be understood.

Section 5.

What is the use of the infinitive mode?

Ans.—The infinitive mode is used to express action or being without affirming it.

Give examples of verbs in the infinitive mode.

Ans.—To be, to speak, to love.

What does the word "infinitive" mean?

Ans.—It means without limit or end, and this use of the verb is called the infinitive mode because the action signified by the verb is not limited by any connection with a subject.

Give examples.

Ans.—*To read* is a pleasure. *To read* has no subject, and cannot, like other verbs, agree with a subject in number and person. *To read* is here used as a noun in the nominative case.

How may the infinitive mode usually be known?

Ans.—By having the sign *to* placed before the verb.

NOTE.—This sign is omitted after *bid, dare, let, feel, make, need, hear, help,* and a few other words; as, Bid him be quiet, *(to be quiet.)* I heard him speak, *(to speak.)*

NOTE.—Infinitives are often used as nouns; as, I like *to read* Here *to read* has the same meaning as *reading* has in the sentence, "I like *reading.*"

Infinitives not used as nouns, are adjective or adverbial elements, and they depend upon the words which they limit; as, He came to see the show. In this sentence *to see* is an adverbial element stating why he came, and depends upon or modifies *came.*

Name all the parts of speech in the following sentences, and tell the number, person, tense, voice and mode of the verbs:

1. James is writing a letter.
2. Donald ran toward his own home.
3. Lucy may go to the city tomorrow.
4. The President has issued his proclamation.
5. Ira had solved the problem at home.
6. The train will have started by 10 o'clock.
7. You must study diligently at home and at school.
8. Pupils should improve every moment of time.
9. The doctor should have told you about it.
10. Harold could not understand the explanation.
11. I might have gone home in the morning.
12. It is a pleasure to teach obedient pupils.
13. Henrietta loves to read "Milton's Poems."
14. Let me see your answer to the last problem.
15. I love to look at a scene like this,
    Of wild and careless play;
    And persuade myself that I am not old,
    And my locks are not yet gray;
    For it stirs the blood in an old man's heart,
    And makes his pulses fly,
    To catch the thrill of a happy voice,
    And the sight of a pleasant eye.—*N. P. Willis.*

Forms of the Verb.

Verbs have different forms, and these forms are used for special purposes. They are: The emphasis form, the progressive form, and the solemn form.

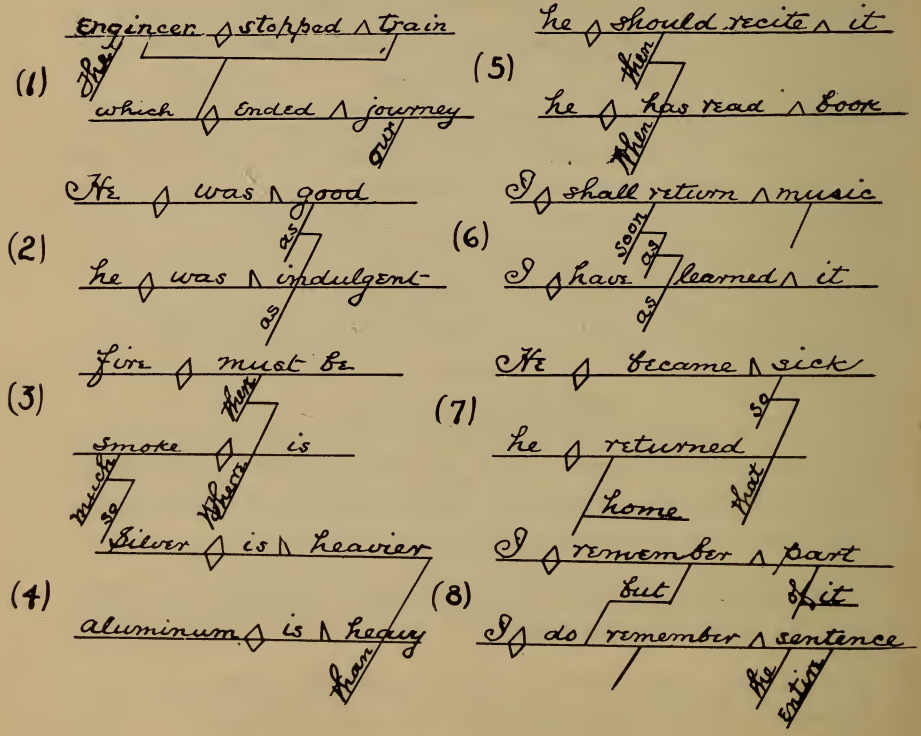
The emphasis form of a verb is used to intensify the meaning; as, Men *do commit* sin.

The progressive form is used to denote continuation of the action expressed by the verb; as, The sun *is shining.*

The solemn form is used in the Bible and in religious worship; as, Thou *art* God, and Thou *knowest* all things.

SENTENCES ILLUSTRATED BY DIAGRAMS BELOW:

1. The engineer stopped the train, which ended our journey.
2. He was as good as he was indulgent.
3. Where there is so much smoke, there must be fire.
4. Silver is heavier than aluminum.
5. When he has read the book he should then recite it.
6. I shall return the music as soon as I have learned it.
7. He became so sick that he returned home.
8. I remember part of it, but I do not remember the entire sentence.



The first diagram illustrates the use of an entire proposition as the antecedent of a relative pronoun. It was not the train, not the engineer, but the *engineer's stopping the train* that ended the journey.

In the second sentence the first word *as* modifies the adjective *good,* and is itself modified by the subordinate proposition. The second *as* modifies the adjective *indulgent.*

The adverb *there* in the third sentence is modified by the subordinate proposition, and *where* modifies the verb *is.*

In the fourth sentence *heavier* is modified by the subordinate proposition. The word *than* is here used as a conjunctive adverb and modifies both adjective predicates.

Then in the fifth sentence modifies *should recite* and is itself modified by the subordinate proposition.

In the sixth sentence the first word *as* modifies *soon,* and is modified by the subordinate proposition. The second *as* modifies *have learned.*

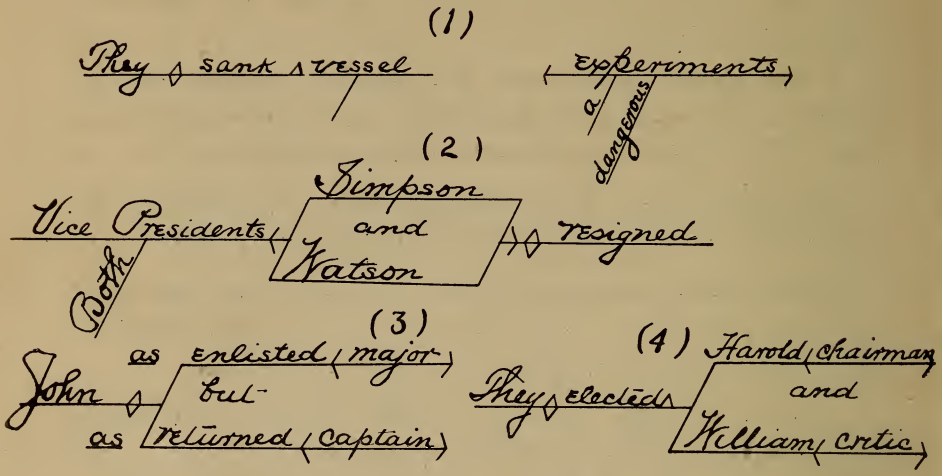
The word *so* in the seventh sentence modifies *sick,* and is itself modified by the subordinate proposition. *That* here has the force of a conjunctive adverb.

The eighth diagram illustrates the arrangement of a compound sentence. The coordinate connective is placed on an intermediate horizontal line.

SENTENCES ILLUSTRATED BY DIAGRAMS BELOW:

1. They sank the vessel,—a dangerous experiment.
2. Both Vice Presidents, Simpson and Watson, resigned.
3. John enlisted as major, but returned as captain.
4. They elected Harold chairman, and William critic.

L. of C.



In the first sentence, the word *experiment* is in apposition with the entire sentence, and is enclosed by itself.

The second diagram shows the arrangement of two nouns in apposition with the subject of the sentence.

The third sentence is a peculiar one. The word *as* is often used as a sign of apposition, and has no further use in the sentence. *Major* and *Captain* are both in apposition with the subject *John.*

The fourth sentence illustrates the use of a verb followed by two objects, one denoting the rank, office or position of the individual named. In all such cases the noun denoting rank or office is in apposition with the other noun.

LESSON XLII.

Principal Parts of Verbs.

Section 1.

What is meant by the "principal parts" of a verb?

Ans.—By principal parts of a verb we mean the form of the verb in three tenses as follows: the present tense, indicative mode; the past tense, indicative mode; and the past participle, indicative mode.

Give examples of principal parts of verbs.

Ans.—Present tense, *work;* Past tense, *worked;* Past participle, *worked.*

Note.—When the verb is used in a sentence, the above facts are made clear; as, I *work.* Here the verb is in present tense. In the sentence, *I worked,* the verb is in past tense. The past tense form and the past participle form of *regular* verbs are always the same.

What is a regular verb?

Ans.—A regular verb is one that forms its past tense and past participle form of the verb by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense; as, love, loved; walk, walked.

What is an irregular verb?

Ans.—An irregular verb is one that does not form its past tense and past participle form of the verb by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense; as, see, saw; write, wrote; run, ran.

Observation.

Eminent speakers and writers favor the use of the *regular,* in preference to the *irregular* form of verbs which have two forms for the past tense or past participle.

Give examples of verbs which have two forms for the past tense.

Ans.—Learn, learnt; or, learn, learned; dream, dreamt; or, dream, dreamed.

Some verbs are used only for the purpose of helping other verbs. They are called auxiliary or helping verbs. These auxiliary verbs have only two tense forms, as shown by the following. (See dictionary)

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.
May,	Might,
Can,	Could,
Will,	Would,
Shall.	Should.

These helping verbs are used merely to show relations of tense and mode, and may be used with any principal verb; as, I *can* write; He *will* go. A few auxiliary verbs, as *be, do, have* and *will* may be used as principal verbs; as, *Be* careful; I *have* a book; He *willed* the house and lot to his son.

Principal Parts of Irregular Verbs.

Section 2.

Note.—All verbs in the following list marked *x* have both forms, regular and irregular.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Am, (Be)	was,	been.
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Bear (to bring forth)	bore, bare,	born.
Bear (to carry)	bore,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beaten.
Bend,	bent, x.	bent, x.
Bet,	bet, x.	bet, x.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bid, bidden.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bled,
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Build,	built, x.	built, x.
Break,	broke, brake,	broken, broke.
Burn,	burnt, x.	burnt, x.
Bless,	blest, x.	blest, x.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.

Cast,	cast,	cast.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Catch,	caught,	caught.
Crow,	crew, x.	crowed.
Chide,	chid,	chidden, chid.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Cleave (to adhere)	clave, x.	cleaved.
Come,	came,	come.
Cleave (to split)	cleft, clove,	cloven, x.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clad, x.	clad, x.
Dare,	durst, x.	dared.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Deal,	dealt, x.	dealt, x.
Dwell,	dwelt, x.	dwelt, x.
Dig,	dug, x.	dug, x.
Dress,	drest, x.	drest, x.
Do,	did,	done.
Dream,	dreamt, x.	dreamt, x.
Drink,	drank,	drank, drunk.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Eat,	ate,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Find,	found,	found.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Forget,	forgot,	forgotten, forgot.
Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.

Get,	got,	gotten, got.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Give,	gave,	given.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Gild,	gilt, x.	gilt, x.
Grave,	graved,	graven, x.
Gird,	girt, x.	girt, x.
Go,	went,	gone.
Hang, (intransitive)	hung,	hung, (intransitive)
Hang, (transitive)	hanged,	hanged, (transitive)
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Have,	had,	had.
Hold,	held,	hold, holden.
Heave,	hove, x.	hove, x.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hew,	hewed,	hewn, x.
Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
Hear,	heard,	heard.

Knit,	knit, x.	knit, x.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Kneel,	knelt,	knelt.
Know,	knew,	known.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Load,	loaded,	loaded, laden.
Lay,	laid,	laid.
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Lead,	led,	led.
Light,	lit, x.	lit, x.
Lean,	leant, x.	leant, x.
Lie, (to recline)	lay,	lain.
Leap,	leapt, x.	leapt, x.
Let,	let,	let.
Learn,	learnt, x.	learnt, x.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Leave,	left,	left.
Make,	made,	made.
Mow,	mowed,	mowed, mown.
Mean,	meant,	meant.
Meet,	met,	met.
Put,	put,	put.
Pay,	paid,	paid.
Plead,	pled, plead, x.	plead, pled, x.
Pen,	pent, x.	pent.
Quit,	quit, x.	quit, x.
Run,	ran,	run.
Rap,	rapped,	rapped.
Rive,	rived,	riven.
Read,	read,	read.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Reave,	reft,	reft.
Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Ride,	rode,	ridden, rode.
Saw,	sawed,	sawn, x.
Set,	set,	set.
Say,	said,	said.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
See,	saw,	seen.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Shape,	shaped,	shapen, x.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Shave,	shaved,	shaven, x.
Shrink,	shrank, shrunk,	shrunken, shrank.
Shear,	shore, x.	shorn, x.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	shone, x.	shone, x.
Show,	showed,	shown.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Sing,	sang, sung,	sung.
Speak,	spoke,	spoken.

Sink,	sank, sunk,	sunk.
Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Sow,	sowed,	sown, x.
Smell,	smelt, x.	smelt, x.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Slit,	slit,	slit.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Sling,	slung,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Stay,	staid, x.	staid, x.
Speed,	sped,	sped.
Spoil,	spoilt, x.	spoilt, x.
Spell,	spelt, x.	spelt, x.
Spring,	sprang, sprung,	sprung,
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Spill,	spilt, x.	spilt, x.
Split,	split,	split.
Spit,	spit, spat,	spitten, spit.
Spin,	spun,	spun.
Stave,	stove, x.	stove, x.
Strike,	struck,	stricken, struck.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
String,	strung,	strung.
Strive,	strove.	striven.
Stride,	strode,	stridden.

Swing,	swung,	swung.
Strow,	strowed,	strown, x.
Swim,	swam, swum,	swum.
Swell,	swelled,	swollen, x.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Take,	took,	taken.
Tread,	trod,	trodden, trod.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Tell,	told,	told.
Thrive,	throve, x.	thriven, x.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Write,	wrote,	written.
Wax,	waxed,	waxen, x.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Work,	wrought, x.	wrought, x.
Weave,	wove, x.	woven.
Wind,	wound,	wound.
Weep,	wept,	wept.
Win,	won,	won.
Wake,	woke, x.	woke, x.
Whet,	whet, x.	whet, x.
Wed,	wed, x.	wed, x.
Wet,	wet, x.	wet, x.

LESSON XLIII.

Synopsis of Verbs.

Define synopsis of verbs.

Ans.—*Synopsis* is a change in the form of the verb, in first person and singular number, to express the tense required.

What does the word "synopsis" mean?

Ans.—It means *a seeing all together;* a view of all the leading parts that make up anything.

In what modes and tenses is synopsis applied to verbs?

Ans.—In all the modes and tenses.

How many tenses has the indicative mode?

Ans.—Six: Present, Present Perfect, Past, Past Perfect, Future, and Future Perfect.

Give a synopsis of the verb "To Be" in the indicative mode.

Ans.—

Present Tense,	I am.
Present Perfect Tense,	I have been.
Past Tense,	I was.
Past Perfect Tense,	I had been.
Future Tense,	I shall be.
Future Perfect Tense,	I shall have been.

How many tenses has the subjunctive mode?

Ans.—The subjunctive mode has three tenses: Present, Past, and Past Perfect.

Give a synopsis of "To Be" in the subjunctive mode.

Ans.—

Present Tense,	If I be.
Past Tense,	If I were.
Past Perfect Tense,	If I had been.

How many tenses are used in the potential mode?

Ans.—Four: Present, Present Perfect, Past, and Past Perfect.

Give a synopsis of "To Be" in the potential mode.

Ans.—

Present Tense,	I may, can or must be.
Present Perfect Tense,	I may, can or must have been.
Past Tense,	I might, could, would or should be.
Past Perfect Tense,	I might, could, would or should have been.

How many tenses are used in the imperative mode?

Ans.—The Present Tense only is used in the imperative mode.

Give a synopsis of "To Be" in the imperative mode.

Ans.—

Present Tense,	Be thou, or be you.

How many tenses has the infinitive mode?

Ans.—The infinitive mode has two tenses: Present and Present Perfect.

Give a synopsis of "To Be" in the infinitive mode.

Ans.—

Present Tense,	To be.
Present Perfect.	To have been.

NOTE.—Observe that synopsis is given in first person and singular number only.

Write a complete synopsis of the following verbs: Recite, play, hope, purchase, run, go, write, see, encamp.

LESSON XLIV.

Conjugation of Verbs.

Section 1.

What is conjugation of verbs?

Ans.—Conjugation is a complete statement of the changes made in a verb to express, in regular order, its voice, mode, tense, person and number.

What modes are used in conjugation?

Ans.—All the modes.

Note.—Observe the parallel conjugation of the verb "To Be" in the indicative and potential modes.

INDICATIVE MODE.	POTENTIAL MODE.
Present Tense.	
SINGULAR.	SINGULAR.
1. I am,	1. I may, can or must be,
2. Thou art, You are,	2. Thou mayst, canst or must be, You may, can or must be,
3. He is;	3. He may, can or must be;
PLURAL.	PLURAL.
1. We are,	1. We may, can or must be,
2. You are,	2. You may, can or must be,
3. They are.	3. They may, can or must be.
Present Perfect Tense.	
SINGULAR.	SINGULAR.
1. I have been,	1. I may, can or must have been,
2. Thou hast been, You have been,	2. Thou mayst, canst or must have been, You may, can or must have been,
3. He has been;	3. He may, can or must have been;

PLURAL.	PLURAL.
1. We have been,	1. We may, can or must have been,
2. You have been,	2. You may, can or must have been,
3. They have been.	3. They may, can or must have been.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	SINGULAR.
1. I was,	1. I might (could, would or should) be,
2. Thou wast,	2. Thou mightst be,
You were,	You might be,
3. He was;	3. He might be;
PLURAL.	PLURAL.
1. We were,	1. We might be,
2. You were,	2. You might be,
3. They were.	3. They might be.

Past Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.	SINGULAR.
1. I had been,	1. I might have been,
2. Thou hadst been,	2. Thou mightst have been,
You had been,	You might have been,
3. He had been;	3. He might have been;
PLURAL.	PLURAL.
1. We had been,	1. We might have been,
2. You had been,	2. You might have been,
3. They had been.	3. They might have been.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall be,
2. Thou wilt be,
   You will be,
3. He will be;

(The potential mode has no Future Tense.)

PLURAL.

1. We shall be,
2. You will be,
3. They will be.

Future Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall have been,
2. Thou wilt have been,
   You will have been,
3. He will have been;

(The potential mode has no Future Perfect Tense.)

PLURAL.

1. We shall have been,
2. You will have been,
3. They will have been.

Section 2.

Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I be,	1. If we be,
2. If thou be,	2. If you be.
If you be,	
3. If he be;	3. If they be.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I were,	1. If we were,
2. If thou wert, If you were,	2. If you were,
3. If he were;	3. If they were.

Past Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I had been,	1. If we had been,
2. If thou hadst been, If you had been,	2. If you had been,
3. If he had been;	3. If they had been.

Infinitive Mode.

Present Tense, To be.
Present Perfect, To have been.

Imperative Mode.

Singular, Be, be thou or you.
Plural, Be, be ye or you.

LESSON LXV.

Section 1.

Conjugation of "To Advise," Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MODE. POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	SINGULAR.
1. I advise,	1. I may advise,
2. Thou advisest, You advise,	2. Thou mayst advise, You may advise,
3. He advises;	3. He may advise;

PLURAL.	PLURAL.
1. We advise,	1. We may advise,
2. You advise,	2. You may advise,
3. They advise.	3. They may advise.

Present Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.	SINGULAR.
1. I have advised,	1. I may have advised,
2. Thou hast advised,	2. Thou mayst have advised,
You have advised,	You may have advised,
3. He has advised;	3. He may have advised;

PLURAL.	PLURAL.
1. We have advised,	1. We may have advised,
2. You have advised,	2. You may have advised,
3. They have advised.	3. They may have advised.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	SINGULAR.
1. I advised,	1. I might advise,
2. Thou advisedst,	2. Thou mightst advise,
You advised,	You might advise,
3. He advised;	3. He might advise;

PLURAL.	PLURAL.
1. We advised,	1. We might advise,
2. You advised,	2. You might advise,
3. They advised.	3. They might advise.

Past Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I had advised,
2. Thou hadst advised,
   You had advised,
3. He had advised;

PLURAL.

1. We had advised,
2. You had advised,
3. They had advised.

SINGULAR.

1. I might have advised,
2. Thou mightst have advised,
   You might have advised,
3. He might have advised;

PLURAL.

1. We might have advised,
2. You might have advised,
3. They might have advised.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall advise,
2. Thou wilt advise,
   You will advise,
3. He will advise;

(The potential mode has no Future Tense.)

PLURAL.

1. We shall advise,
2. You will advise,
3. They will advise.

Future Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall have advised,
2. Thou wilt have advised,
   You will have advised,
3. He will have advised;

(The potential mode has no Future Perfect Tense.)

PLURAL.

1. We shall have advised,
2. You will have advised,
3. They will have advised,

Section 2.

Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I advise,	1. If we advise,
2. If thou advise, If you advise,	2. If you advise,
3. If he advise;	3. If they advise.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I advised,	1. If we advised,
2. If thou advised, If you advised,	2. If you advised,
3. If he advised;	3. If they advised.

Past Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I had advised,	1. If we had advised,
2. If thou hadst advised, If you had advised,	2. If you had advised,
3. If he had advised;	3. If they had advised.

Infinitive Mode.

Present, To advise.
Present Perfect, To have advised.

Imperative Mode.

Singular, Advise, do thou or you advise.
Plural, Advise, do ye or you advise.

Section 3.

Conjugation of "To Advise," Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I am advised,
2. Thou art advised,
   You are advised,
3. He is advised;

PLURAL.

1. We are advised,
2. You are advised,
3. They are advised.

Present Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I have been advised,
2. Thou hast been advised,
   You have been advised.
3. He has been advised;

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I may be advised,
2. Thou mayst be advised,
   You may be advised,
3. He may be advised;

PLURAL.

1. We may be advised,
2. You may be advised,
3. They may be advised.

Present Perfect Tense.

PLURAL.

1. I may have been advised,
2. Thou mayst have been advised.
   You may have been advised,
3. He may have been advised;

PLURAL.

1. We have been advised,
2. You have been advised.
3. They have been advised.

PLURAL.

1. We may have been advised,
2. You may have been advised.
3. They may have been advised.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I was advised,
2. Thou wast advised,
   You were advised,
3. He was advised;

SINGULAR.

1. I might be advised,
2. Thou mightst be advised,
   You might be advised,
3. He might be advised;

PLURAL.

1. We were advised,
2. You were advised,
3. They were advised.

PLURAL.

1. We might be advised,
2. You might be advised,
3. They might be advised.

Past Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I had been advised,
2. Thou hadst been advised,
   You had been advised,
3. He had been advised;

PLURAL.

1. I might have been advised,
2. Thou mightst have been advised,
   You might have been advised.
3. He might have been advised;

PLURAL.

1. We had been advised,
2. You had been advised,
3. They had been advised.

PLURAL.

1. We might have been advised,
2. You might have been advised.
3. They might have been advised.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall be advised,
2. Thou wilt be advised,
   You will be advised,
3. He will be advised;

(The Potential Mode has no Future Tense.)

PLURAL.

1. We shall be advised,
2. You will be advised,
3. They will be advised.

Future Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall have been advised,
2. Thou wilt have been advised,
   You will have been advised,
3. He will have been advised;

(The Potential Mode has no Future Perfect Tense.)

PLURAL.

1. We shall have been advised,
2. You will have been advised,
3. They will have been advised.

Section 4.

Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I be advised,	1. If we be advised,
2. If thou be advised,	2. If you be advised,
If you be advised,	
3. If he be advised;	3. If they be advised.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I were advised,	1. If we were advised,
2. If thou wert advised,	2. If you were advised,
If you were advised,	
3. If he were advised;	3. If they were advised.

Past Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I had been advised,	1. If we had been advised,
2. If thou hadst been advised,	2. If you had been advised,
If you had been advised,	
3. If he had been advised;	3. If they had been advised.

Infinitive Mode.

Present, To be advised.
Present Perfect, To have been advised.

Imperative Mode.

Singular, Be advised, or be thou or you advised.
Plural, Be advised, or be ye or you advised.

Note.—Teachers should select a number of verbs and insist upon a complete synopsis and conjugation of each.

How is the passive voice formed?

Ans.—The passive voice is formed by adding the *past participle* of any principal verb to some form of the verb *to be.*

Give examples of the formation of passive voice.

Ans.—The book *was soiled.* Here *soiled* is the past participle of the verb *soil,* and it is added to the verb *was,* which is a form of the verb *to be.*

What is meant by a principal verb?

Ans.—It means the leading word in the verb; that part of the verb which really expresses the action.

Give examples of principal verbs.

Ans.—I *shall have been advised.* Here *advised* is the principal verb, and the other words are auxiliary verbs.

Name some auxiliary verbs.

Ans.—Be, do, have, shall, will, may, can, must.

Observations.

Ought, must, quoth and *beware* are defective verbs, and do not change their form to denote different tenses.

Ought (owed as a duty), always precedes a verb in the infinitive mode, and is in the present or present perfect tense. In the present tense form, the infinitive refers to future, as well as, to present time; as, He ought to go *tomorrow.* He ought to go *now. Ought to go* has precisely the same meaning

and force as *should go,* should (to) go. In parsing similar expressions, say they are equivalent to *should go,* and then give the proper mode, tense, person and number.

Must denotes compulsion or necessity, and is used only in the present and present perfect tenses in the potential mode.

Beware (be wary) is generally used in the imperative and infinitive modes. It is used sometimes, however, in the future tense, indicative mode; and also in the past tense, potential mode.

Quoth is used only in the past tense, indicative mode. It is obsolete except in comic style.

NOTE.—Do not hasten over conjugation. See that pupils understand it thoroughly before passing it by.

LESSON XLVI.

ORDER OF PARSING VERBS.

Section 1.

1. Regular or Irregular,
2. Give Principal Parts,
3. Copulative, Transitive or Intransitive,
4. If Transitive, give Voice,
5. Tense,
6. Mode,
7. Person and Number,
8. Name its Subject. (If Infinitive, give its use.)

Study the following verbs by giving principal parts, synopsis and conjugation of each, remembering that *lay* is a transitive verb, and means *to place;* that *lie* is an intransitive verb, and means *to recline;* that *set* is a transitive verb, and mean *to place;* that *sit* is an intransitive verb and means *to repose on*

a seat. Come, do, see, go, sing, sit, set, lie, lay, teach, lost, make, know, give, find, bring, buy, rise, raise.

Section 2.

Correct the following sentences and give reasons for the changes you make:

1. I seen him at the circus.
2. I have not saw him today.
3. Has Lucy went to school yet?
4. Uncle Ned laid down to rest.
5. The invalid lays in bed all day.
6. Set down on the sofa, and lie your hat on the bed.
7. They all come home yesterday.
8. We run down to meet them.
9. The bell rung early in the morning.
10. I have lain your pencil on the table.
11. The farmer sat the hen on Monday.
12. I done all the work on that example myself.
13. The glass had broke and had fell to the ground.
14. John brung me some nice apples today.
15. Miss Fresco sat by the piano and sung while she played.

SUBJECTS FOR COMPOSITION.

A Home in the Country.
Value of Time.
Teaching as a Profession.

Change the following poetry to prose. Parse the verbs before and after the change:

A weaver sat by the side of his loom,
A-flinging his shuttle fast;
And a thread that would wear till the hour of doom
Was added at every cast.

His warp had been by the angels spun,
And his weft was bright and new
Like threads which the morning upbraids from the sun,
All jeweled over with dew.

And fresh-lipped, bright-eyed, beautiful flowers
In the rich, soft web were bedded;
And blithe to the weaver sped onward the hours:
Not yet were Time's feet leaded!—Emily Judson.

LESSON XLVII.

The Adjective Resumed.

What is an adjective?
Name the two great classes of adjectives.
Define each class and give examples.
What is comparison?
How many degrees of comparison are there?
Tell the form and use of each degree of comparison.
What kind of adjectives admit of comparison?
What do adjectives modify?
What kind of elements are adjectives in analysis?
Give examples of adjectives used as nouns.

Into what classes may descriptive adjectives be divided?
Ans.—Into three classes: Common, Proper and Verbal.

What is a common descriptive adjective?
Ans.—It is an ordinary word used to describe a noun or pronoun.

Give examples of common descriptive adjectives.
Ans.—*Good* books; *sweet* apples; *red* roses.

What is a proper adjective?

Ans.—A proper adjective is an adjective that is derived from a proper noun.

Give examples of proper adjectives.

Ans.—*American* soldiers; *Michigan* lumber.

NOTE.—A proper adjective, like a proper noun, should begin with a capital letter.

What is a verbal adjective?

Ans.—A verbal adjective is the verbal form of a word placed before a noun to modify its meaning.

Give examples of verbal adjectives.

Ans.—The *rising* sun; a *plowed* field.

NOTE.—Descriptive adjectives are often used in place of the nouns which they would modify if those nouns were supplied; as, The *good* are happy; The *idle* are vicious. Adjectives thus used have number, person, gender and case, and should be parsed as adjectives used as nouns.

LESSON XLVIII.

CLASSES OF DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVES.

Into what classes may definitive adjectives be divided?

Ans.—Into three classes: Articles, Numerals and Pronominals.

How many and what are the articles?

Ans.—There are two articles: Definite and Indefinite.

What word is called the definite article, and why?

Ans.—*The* is called the definite article because it definitely points out the noun which it limits; as, *the* mountain; *the* church on *the* corner.

What word is called the indefinite article?

Ans.—*A* or *an* (different forms of the same word) is called the indefinite article because it limits in an indefinite or general way.

Explain the use of *a* and *an*.

Ans.—*A* is used before consonant sounds; as, *a* house; *a* man. *An* is used before a vowel sound; as, *an* apple; *an* owl.

What are numeral adjectives?

Ans.—Numeral adjectives are those which express number, order or position; as, ten, tenth, tenfold.

How many classes of numeral adjectives are there?

Ans.—There are three classes: Cardinals, Ordinals and Multiples.

Define each class.

Ans.—

Cardinals denote how many; as, five, ten, fifty.

Ordinals denote what order or position; as, fifth, tenth, fiftieth.

Multiples denote what fold; as, tenfold, an hundred fold.

NOTE.—*Fold* means the number of times repeated. *Tenfold* means repeated ten times.

OBSERVATIONS.

In the sentence, "The house was burned," *the house* means some particular house. In the sentence, "A house was burned," the meaning is, that *some* house, no particular one, was burned.

When *the* is used before a descriptive adjective, the adjective takes the use of a noun; as, The rich are not always happy.

The has the same use as the word *that;* as *The* man whom you saw. *That* man whom you saw.

A noun used without an article is used in its widest sense; as, Man is mortal; Every man is mortal, or All men are mortal.

LESSON XLIX.

Pronominal Adjectives.

Section 1.

What are pronominal adjectives?

Ans.—Pronominal adjectives are such definitives as may be used as nouns; as, *This* is mine; *Each* fought bravely.

How many and what are the classes of pronominal adjectives?

Ans.—There are three classes of pronominals: Demonstratives, Distributives and Indefinites.

Define each class.

Ans.—Demonstratives refer to definite objects. They are: this (plural these), that (plural those), both, former, latter, yon, same and yonder.

Note.—When *this* and *that,* or *these* and *those* are used in the same sentence to distinguish two or more things previously mentioned, *this* and *these* refer to the nearer or closer ones, and *that* and *those,* to the ones farther away; as, This tree is older than that. Good speakers and good writers are equally necessary; *these* (good writers) instruct through the eye, and *those* (good speakers), through the ear.

Distributive Adjectives.

Distributives refer to separate persons or things. There are four distributives: Each, either, neither and every.

NOTE.—*To distribute* means to share out, to deal with separately. Distributives are used to denote that every one of a number of persons or objects is taken singly; as, *Each boy* received his share. *Every* witness was closely questioned.

NOTE.—*Each* and *every* have the same use, but a distinguishing feature of *each* is its frequent use in connection with *other;* as, 'Tis said they eat each other.

Because distributives represent objects taken singly, they require the singular form of verbs when used as nouns; as, *Each* deserves a reward. *Either* is a good method.

Either means one of two only; as, Either is competent. *Neither* means not one of two, or *not either* one of two only; as, Neither is competent.

INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES.

Indefinites refer to objects in a general way without reference to any one in particular.

The word *indefinite* means not certain, not distinctly pointed out; as, *Any* man should know better. *Some* plants are wholesome while *others* are poisonous.

Name the principal indefinite adjectives.

Ans.—Few, little, many, all, any, much, no, none, certain, one, another, own, other, divers, enough, several, some, which, whichever, sundry, what, whatever.

OBSERVATIONS.

Section 2.

Few and *many* should be used to express number only; *little* and *much,* to express quantity. *More* is the comparative degree of both *many* and *much,* and therefore, relates to both number and quantity.

None means no one, and should be used in the singular number only. However, some authors recommend the use of *none* in plural number.

Certain is sometimes used as a descriptive adjective; as, There is *certain* (undoubted) danger in crossing the river to-night. It is a *certain* fact.

Own means *honestly possessed;* as, This is my own hat; that is, my honestly possessed hat.

Divers means several, with the implied modification of difference or variety.

Enough means sufficient; as, The poor fellow has only enough money for one more meal. *Enough* is sometimes used as an adverb; as, He was not quick *enough.* In the sentence, "He ate enough," *enough* is a noun.

Sundry means the same as divers.

What, whatever, which and *whichever* are indefinites only when they precede nouns; as, Which lesson shall I study. Whichever (lesson) you please.

The compound expressions, *each other* (used with reference to two only), and *one another* (used with reference to more than two), are called reciprocals, because the action signified by the one is reflected from each on the other; as, They love each (loves) (the) other. They amuse one another. That is, They amuse (each) one (amuses) the other. In such cases, *each* should be parsed as an adjective used as a noun in apposition with *they. Other* should be parsed as an adjective used as a noun in the objective case after the transitive verb *love.*

In the sentence, "They amuse one another," *one* should be parsed as an adjective used as a noun in apposition with *they.*

Another should be parsed as an adjective used as a noun in the objective case after the verb *amuse*.

Subjects for Composition.

The Grandeur of Self-Sacrifice.
Ambition in Woman.
Necessities of Reformation.

LESSON L.

Comparison of Adjectives.

Section 1.

(See LESSON XXVI, Section 2.)

How many kinds of comparison are there?

Ans.—Two: Increasing and Decreasing comparison.

Define increasing comparison.

Ans.—Increasing comparison is a change in the adjective or adverb, which expresses a higher or greater degree of quality or condition.

Give examples of increasing comparison.

Ans.—Sweet, sweeter, sweetest; distant, more distant, most distant.

Define decreasing comparison.

Ans.—Decreasing comparison is a change in the adjective or adverb, which expresses a lower or less degree of quality or condition.

Give examples of decreasing comparison.

Ans.—Small, smaller, smallest; distant, less distant, least distant.

How are adjectives of one syllable compared?

Ans.—Adjectives of one syllable are usually compared by adding to the positive, *r* or *er* to form the comparative, and *st* or *est* to form the superlative degree.

Give examples of comparison of adjectives of one syllable.

Ans.—Cold, colder, coldest; pale, paler, palest.

NOTE.—Some adjectives of more than one syllable, ending in *y* or *le*, are compared like words of one syllable; as, noble, nobler, noblest; holy, holier, holiest. And some adjectives may be compared both ways; as worthy, worthier, worthiest; or worthy, more worthy, most worthy.

How are adjectives of more than one syllable compared?

Ans.—By prefixing to the positive *more* to form the comparative, and *most* to form the superlative degree.

Give examples.

Ans.—Useful, more useful, most useful.

By decreasing comparison how are adjectives compared?

Ans.—Sometimes by prefixing to the positive *less* to form the comparative, and *least* to form the superlative degree.

Give examples.

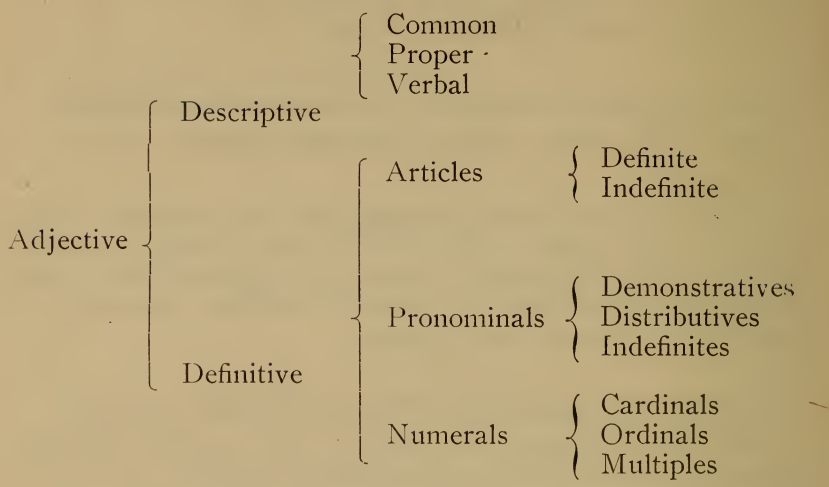
Ans.—Sinful, less sinful, least sinful.

NOTE.—Some adjectives of both kinds of comparison are compared irregularly; as, good, better, best; ill, worse, worst.

Some adjectives denote fullness or completeness in meaning, and do not properly admit of comparison. The principal of these are: square, perfect, circular, chief, true, just, universal, extreme and infinite.

Section 2.

DIAGRAM OF THE ADJECTIVE.



ORDER OF PARSING ADJECTIVES.

1. Descriptive or Definitive.
2. If Descriptive, compare it.
3. Name its use as a Modifier.

NOTE.—Sometimes the words *many, but, such* and *not* are used before the article *a* in such a manner that both words should be taken together as the adjective; as, *Not a* boy appeared. *Such a* law is not in existence. *Many a* morning I was late at school.

In the following sentences, change the prepositional phrases to adjectives or adverbs, and parse the nouns, pronouns, verbs, and adjectives before and after the change:

1. The prisoners were treated with kindness by their captors.
2. Surgeons should use their instruments with great care.

3. The Spanish army retreated from the battle field in haste.
4. We listened with patience to the narrative.
5. The woman sews with great care.
6. Words of kindness are fitly spoken.
7. I wish you would not read in such a rapid manner.
8. Men of wealth are not always the most useful men.
9. The house on First Street was built in haste.

LESSON LI.

THE ADVERB RESUMED.—(See LESSON XXVI.)

What is an adverb?

What do adverbs modify?

What are adverbs called in analysis?

How many kinds of adverbs are there?

Ans.—Five: Adverbs of Place, Time, Cause, Manner and Degree. There are also Interrogative and Conjunctive adverbs.

How are adverbs of place distinguished from other adverbs?

Ans.—Adverbs of place tell *where.*

Name the principal adverbs of place.

Ans.—Here, there, above, below, up, down, hither, thither, far, nowhere, somewhere, thence, (from that place), back, away, forth, aloof, abroad, backwards, aloft, ashore, forward, first, secondly, hence, (from this place).

NOTE.—*There, now, yes* and *no* are often used as introductory or responsive words, and are called *expletives;* as *There* was no night there; *Now,* this is the cause of it all.

How are adverbs of time distinguished from other adverbs?

Ans.—Adverbs of time tell *when, how often, how long.*

Name the principal adverbs of time.

Ans.—Again, always, early, frequently, ever, never, forever, lately, hereafter, now, immediately, often, hitherto, soon, seldom, then, sometimes.

NOTE.—Such words as *yesterday, to-day, to-night* and *to-morrow,* are nouns, but they serve the purpose of adverbial elements as is shown by supplying the preposition; as, They arrived (on) yesterday; James will return (on) to-night. In all similar expressions, supply the preposition when it can be done, so as to express the thought clearly; otherwise, parse the noun in the objective case without a governing word expressed.

How are adverbs of cause distinguished from other adverbs?

Ans.—Adverbs of cause tell *why;* as, therefore, why, wherefore, hence (for this reason).

How are adverbs of manner distinguished?

Ans.—Adverbs of manner tell *how, in what way.*

Name the principal adverbs of manner.

Ans.—Well, anyhow, plainly, amiss, asunder, badly, easily, certainly, sweetly, foolishly, surely, indeed, no, not, nay, verily, perhaps, perchance, probably.

How are adverbs of degree distinguished?

Ans.—Adverbs of degree tell *how much, to what extent.*

Name the principal adverbs of degree.

Ans.—Almost, much, altogether, more, enough, even, most, little, less, equally, least, only, partly, wholly, scarcely, quite, nearly, chiefly, too, somewhat, very, excellently.

What is a conjunctive adverb?

Ans.—A conjunctive adverb is a word which connects two propositions and modifies the verb in one or both propositions. A conjunctive adverb serves the purpose of a conjunction and

also that of an adverb at the same time, and always modifies the verb in the subordinate clause.

Give examples of conjunctive adverbs.

Ans.—I shall read *while* you write.

"*When* the cat's away
The mice will play."

Name some conjunctive adverbs.

Ans.—When, where, before, after, till, until, while, why, as, since, how, than.

What is an interrogative adverb?

Ans.—An interrogative adverb is an adverb used in asking a question.

Give examples of interrogative adverbs.

Ans.—*When* will you return? *Where* are your books?

NOTE.—Sometimes adverbs modify phrases; as, You arrived *just* in time; The line is not *far* beyond that tree. Here *just* modifies the phrase *in time;* and *far* modifies the phrase *beyond that tree.*

LESSON LII.

ORDER OF PARSING ADVERBS.

1. Adverb of,—
   Place,
   Time
   Cause,
   Manner,
   Degree,
2. Compare it,
3. Tell what it modifies.

Parse the nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives and adverbs in the following sentences:

1. Ripe cherries are red.
2. The best grain grows in rich soil.
3. He acted wisely in all things.
4. The merchant sells many beautiful patterns.
5. Lucy is more diligent than Sarah.
6. The wisest men are not always the most useful.
7. A little girl was lost in the great woods.
8. Many small, mischievous boys attend school.
9. The weather is warm in summer and cold in winter.
10. In his effort to win the race, he ran very rapidly.

Subjects for Composition.

The Closing of School.
Love of Duty.
Politeness.

Order of Parsing Participles.

1. Participle,
   Present,
   Past,
   Compound.
2. From what verb derived?
3. Partakes of the use of what two parts of speech?
4. Tell what it modifies.

LESSON LIII.

Order of Parsing Prepositions.

1. Preposition.
2. Name the words between which it shows relation.

Parse the adjectives, adverbs and prepositions in the following sentences:

1. Herbert staid at home to help in the harvest field.
2. Part of the money was divided among the stockholders.
3. That man with the book in his hand went by our house to-day.
4. Four of the candidates reside on farms located in Lewis county, West Virginia.
5. We saw him walk out of the building and go toward the depot.

NOTE.—*Out of* taken together is a preposition.

6. This book of mine is different from yours or theirs.
7. What did you say to me while standing in front of the church just before you went into the car?

LESSON LIV.

ORDER OF PARSING CONJUNCTIONS.

1. Conjunction.
2. Coordinate or Subordinate.
3. Tell what it connects.

Parse the prepositions and conjunctions in the following sentences:

1. The engine and cars fell into the river.
2. Leona went to school, but Hila staid at home.
3. He is older than I, and I am older than you.
4. Both reason and religion condemn excess.
5. Not only the officers, but also the members were sick.
6. Either the Spanish or the American troops will surrender.
7. Neither borrow nor lend books.
8. The horse, as well as the wagon, belongs to me.

NOTE—In the fifth sentence, *not only—but also* are correlative conjunctions; that is, they refer to or answer each other. Also, *both-and,* in the fourth sentence are correlatives because one refers to or answers the other.

———o———

ORDER OF PARSING INTERJECTIONS.

1. Interjection.
2. Tell why.

LESSON LV.

Sentences for a general review of analysis and parsing:

1. A crowd of admiring pupils congregated in Plato's garden.
2. He who stands on etiquette shows his own littleness.
3. The mind loves to dwell in memory's twilight bowers.
4. Apostles, prophets and martyrs have proved the truth of the Christian faith.
5. Cunning and avarice may gain an estate, but can not gain friends.
6. Plants and animals are found in all parts of the world.
7. Impurities in water are left behind when it evaporates.
8. The rapid melting of snow swells a stream far beyond its usual limits.
9. The fool neither knows whether he is right nor cares whether he is wrong.
10. Nearly every spring is the source of a stream of water which flows from it.
11. To assume that a person is guilty of an offence, is unjust.
12. The force with which waves dash upon the coast is very great.
13. The time required by the earth to make one complete revolution around the sun, is called a year.

14. To remain in one spot always, prevents the mind from taking comprehensive views of things.

15. The dew was falling fast, the stars began to blink;
I heard a voice; it said, "Drink, pretty creature, drink!"
And, looking o'er the hedge, before me I espied
A snow-white mountain lamb with a maiden at its side.

No other sheep was near, the lamb was all alone,
And by a slender cord was tethered to a stone;
With one knee on the grass did the little maiden kneel,
While to that mountain lamb she gave its evening meal.

The lamb, while from her hand he thus his supper took,
Seemed to feast with head and ears; and his tail with pleasure shook.
"Drink, pretty creature, drink," she said in such a tone
That I almost received her heart into my own..
—*William Wordsworth.*

LESSON LVI.

Infinitives Explained.

Section 1.

Infinite verbs, or infinitives, are not more difficult to dispose of when properly presented, than finite verbs. The following explanations should be carefully studied and reviewed until the subject matter is thoroughly understood.

Infinitives are used either as nouns or as adjective or adverbial modifiers. In this small compass we circumscribe the limits of verbs in the infinitive mode.

When infinitives are used as nouns, they may be in the nominative case either as subject or predicate; they may be in the objective case after transitive verbs, or they may be in apposi-

tion with a noun or pronoun; as, To sleep is to refresh one's self. Here *To sleep* is an infinitive used as a noun, and is in the nominative case because it is used as the subject of the sentence; and *to refresh* is an infinitive used as a noun in the nominative case, used as the predicate of the sentence. In the sentence, "We shall try to learn," *to learn* is an infinitive used as a noun in the objective case after *shall try,* a transitive verb. In the sentence, "It is annoying to hear such noise," *to hear* has a noun use and is in the nominative case, by apposition, with *it.* Or, the word *it* may be classed as an introductory word, and *to hear* may be parsed as an infinitive used as a noun in the nominative case, used as the subject of the sentence.

Infinitives not used as nouns may modify or depend upon:

1. A *noun;* as, We need *men* to work.
2. A *verb;* as, We *came* to see the country.
3. An *adjective;* as, The problem is *hard* to solve.
4. A *pronoun;* as, The trustees heard *them* recite.
5. A *participle;* as, The building *threatening* to fall, we moved away.

Infinitives always retain their verbal signification whether used as nouns or not, and may be modified by adjective, adverbial or objective elements. In the sentence, "To deceive is wrong," *to deceive* is used as a noun, and as such it is the subject of the sentence. Since *to deceive* is the subject and *wrong,* an adjective, is used as the predicate, this adjective must modify the subject when properly parsed. Wrong is a descriptive adjective and modifies the subject *to deceive.*

NOTE.—An adjective predicate always modifies the subject.

In the sentence, "To spend time foolishly is the height of folly," *to spend* is used as a noun in the nominative case because it is the subject of the sentence, yet it is modified by

time, an objective element, and also by *foolishly*, an adverbial element.

In the sentence, "I shall try to teach you," *to teach* is a verb in the infinitive mode, here used as a noun in the objective case, object of *shall try*. In addition to the use of *to teach* as a noun, it is modified by the pronoun *you*, an objective element.

Sometimes an infinitive having the use of a copulative verb is connected with another verb in such manner as to form a copula; as, The prisoner seems to be innocent. This use of *to be* is very common. In the above sentence, *to be* is blended with *seems* so that both words are required to form the copula. In parsing, however, *to be* is a separate word, and should be parsed as an infinitive not used as a noun, and depends upon the word *seems*.

An infinitive is sometimes used with an adjective to form a phrase noun which may be used as a subject or predicate; as, To be cheerful is to be happy. Here the adjectives *cheerful* and *happy* are used abstractly; that is, without reference to any noun. In such uses of *to be*, the word *to*, seems to be used only for the purpose of introducing the phrase, and does not appear to be a part of the verb as is true in other uses of the infinitive. In analysis we say, *to be cheerful* is a phrase noun used as the subject, and *to be happy* is a phrase noun used as the predicate. This is satisfactory so far as analysis is concerned. But in order to parse the words correctly, the sentence should be expanded; as, Be cheerful and you will be happy; Or, A person who is cheerful is also happy.

Another use of the infinitive not generally understood, is where part of the sentence is introduced by a preposition followed by the infinitive; as, Our teacher was about to resign.

Here *about to resign* has the force of an adjective, and is the predicate, although *to resign* should be parsed as the object of the introductory preposition *about*. This use of a prepositional phrase is not uncommon; as, I am *in haste*. Here *in haste* should be considered the predicate rather than an adverbal element, for *am* is a pure copulative verb, just like *was* in the above sentence.

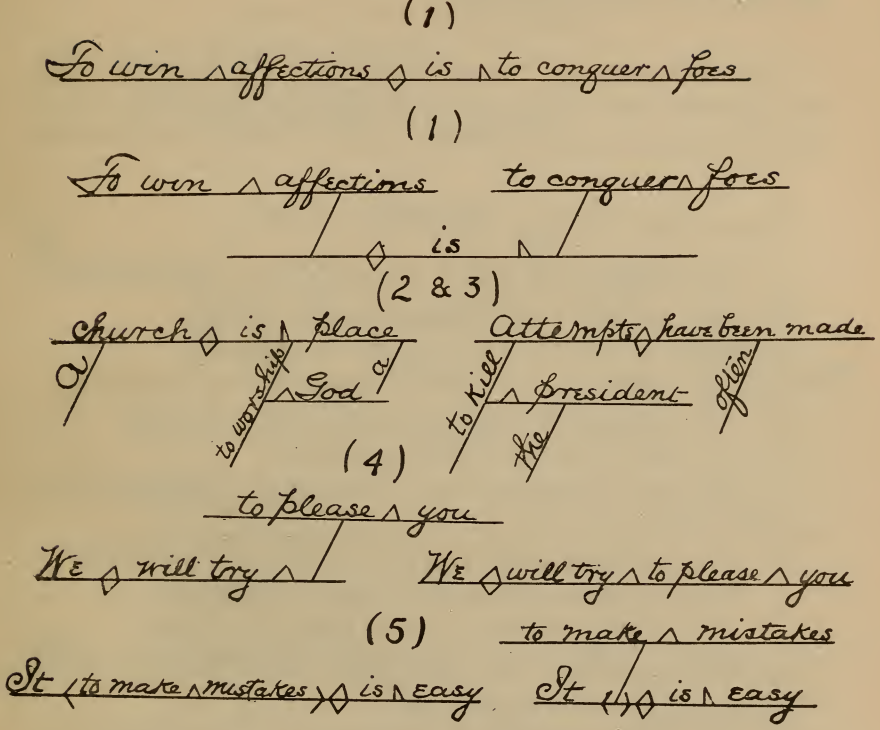
In the sentence, "For a person to be hasty is unwise," *for a person to be hasty* is the subject, and *unwise* is the predicate. *For* is simply an introductory word, for it shows no relation as prepositions do. The sentence should be expanded so that all the words may be properly disposed of; as, A person who is hasty is unwise; or, It is unwise for a person to be hasty. In this sentence, *for a person to be hasty* is a phrase noun in apposition with *it*.

A very common use of the infinitive, and one not considered at all by many authors, is its use after the verb *ought;* as, You ought to go now. The trouble does not seem to lie with the infinitive, but with the verb *ought,* which means *to be obliged, to be bound by duty*. The infinitive seems to determine the tense of *ought;* as, You ought to go; or, You ought to have gone. It means *should,* and its only purpose is to emphasize the obligation expressed by *should*. In the sentence, "You ought to go," it is plain that *ought to go* is equivalent to *should go*. In all such cases, to avoid ambiguity, change the word *ought* and the infinitive to its equivalent, using *should* and the verb; as, He should go.

Sentences Illustrated by Diagrams Below:

1. To win affections is to conquer foes.
2. A church is a place to worship God.
3. Attempts to kill the President have often been made.
4. We will try to please you.
5. It is easy to make mistakes.

MODEL DIAGRAMS.



The diagrams here given illustrate the various uses of the infinitive. In the first sentence "to win" is a noun and as such is the subject of the sentence. "To conquer" is also a noun and is the predicate. Each of these infinitives has also a transitive verb use and each governs an object. Two forms of diagraming the sentence are given.

In the second and third sentences "to worship" and "to kill" are both adjective elements, and yet each governs an object as is shown by the diagrams.

Two forms of diagrams are used to illustrate the fourth sentence. The infinitive "to please" is a noun in the objective case and also controls an object.

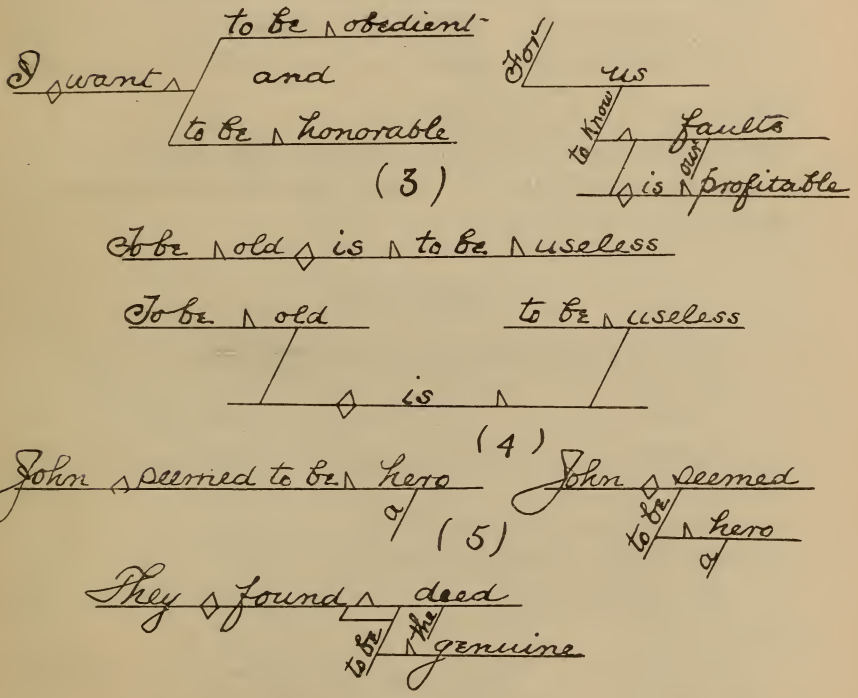
In the fifth sentence "to make mistakes" is in apposition with the pronoun "it." Two forms of diagram are given to express the analysis of this sentence, either of which is practicable.

Diagram the following sentences:

1. We are always in search of something to make us happy.
2. I am not well enough to go to school today.
3. To be entirely free from faults is impossible.
4. Rip Van Winkle's friends did not appear to know him.
5. He was about to speak when time was called.
6. It is easy to see the mistakes of others.
7. For me to say that you are ignorant of the subject is unjust.
8. They told us to return on the next train from the East.
9. Pupils should try to learn to master difficulties.
10. He would like to know how to dispose of "to be."
11. Having little to fear of a worse state, they were determined to try to obtain a better one.
12. Vast riches stimulate to endeavors to gain ascendency in every station, and the dearest, the most cherished of all desire is to rule, to be master; aye, to enslave.
13. To vote is not only a privilege, it is an imperative duty, and to neglect its exercise is to flee before the enemy; to refuse to take up arms in defence of our country, our honor, and our homes.
14. It has come to be the practice to select men for their power to entertain, to tell stories, to treat generously, to be hail fellows, rather than for their qualifications to discharge the trusts of office.

SENTENCES ILLUSTRATED BY DIAGRAMS BELOW:

1. I want to be obedient and to be honorable.
2. For us to know our faults is profitable.
3. To be old is to be useless.
4. John seemed to be a hero.
5. They found the deed to be genuine.



In the first sentence "to be" has a noun use and is used as the object of *want*. "To be" also has a copulative verb use to the extent of governing adjective predicates.

"For" in the second sentence is an introductory preposition and has for its object the pronoun *us*. "To know" depends

upon *us* as an adjective element, yet it has for its object, the noun *faults*.

"To be" in the third sentence, is used as subject and predicate, and in each case is followed by an adjective predicate used abstractly. By expanding the sentence the meaning will be made clear; as, When a man is old he is useless.

"To be" is often used to strengthen a copulative verb, as in the fourth sentence. Yet "to be" depends upon *seems* and is an adverbial element. *Hero* is in the nominative case after *to be*.

In the fifth sentence "to be" depends upon *deed*, yet it has an adverbial signification as well as that of a verb, and is so represented on the diagram.

LESSON LVII.

Properties of Nouns Resumed.

Section 1.

In how many ways may the gender of nouns be expressed?

Ans.—In three ways:—

1. By the use of different words.
2. By the use of different endings.
3. By joining distinguishing words before or after the noun.

First Method.

Masculine,	Feminine.	Masculine,	Feminine.
Boy,	girl.	Youth,	maiden.
Bachelor,	maid.	Beau,	belle.
Husband,	wife.	Man,	woman.
Male,	female.	Lord,	lady.
Brother,	sister.	King,	queen.

Cock,	hen.	Drake,	duck.
Nephew,	niece.	Earl,	countess.
Lad,	lass.	Father,	mother.
Ram,	ewe.	Gander,	goose.
Son,	daughter.	Uncle,	aunt.
Stag,	hind.	Hart,	roe.
Wizard,	witch.	Monk,	nun.
He,	she.	Master,	mistress.
Sir,	madam.	Mr.	Mrs.
Steer,	heifer.	Papa,	mamma.

Some nouns have no corresponding gender; as, porter, baker, brewer, carrier, which are masculine; and laundress, milliner, seamstress, which are feminine.

SECOND METHOD.—(Note the endings.)

Actor,	actress.	Abbott,	abbess.
*Author,	authoress.	Count,	countess.
Dauphin,	dauphiness.	Duke,	duchess.
Administrator,	administratrix,	Czar,	czarina.
Adulterer,	adulteress.	Baron,	baroness.
Deacon,	deaconess.	Ambassador,	ambossadress.
Emperor,	empress.	Heir,	heiress.
Bride-groom, or Groom,	bride.	Benefactor,	benefactress.
Hero,	heroine.	Executor,	executrix.
Hunter,	huntress.	Governor,	governess.
Lion,	lioness.	Landgrave,	landgravine.
Host,	hostess.	Tailor,	tailoress.
Jew,	jewess.	*Poet,	poetess.
Prince,	princess.	Tiger,	tigress.
Prophet,	prophetess.	God,	goddess.
Negro,	negress.	Marquis,	marchioness.
Arbiter,	arbitress.	Shepherd,	shepherdess.

Sorcerer,	sorceress.	Waiter,	waitress.
Sultan,	sultana.	Murderer,	murderess.
Augustus,	Augusta.	Director,	directress.
Charles,	Charlotte,	Instructor,	instructress.
Cornelius,	Cornelia,	Francis,	Frances.
Henry,	Henrietta.	Jesse,	Jessie.
Joseph,	Josephine.	Paul,	Pauline.
Louis,	Louisa.	Don,	Donna.

NOTE.—*Author* and *poet* are now commonly applied to either sex.

THIRD METHOD.—(Note the distinguishing words.)

Gentleman,	gentlewoman.	Englishman,	Englishwoman.
Cock-sparrow,	hen-sparrow.	Man-servant,	maid-servant.
Male child,	female child.	Grandfather,	grandmother.
Schoolmaster,	schoolmistress,	Billy-goat,	nanny-goat.
He-goat,	she-goat.	Merman,	mermaid.
He-bear,	she-bear.	Mr. Thomas,	Mrs. Thomas.
Pea-cock,	pea-hen.		

Gender is sometimes ascribed to objects without life by referring to them as living beings; as, The sun shines in *his* power. The vessel lost *her* sail. Nouns thus used are said to be *personified.*

Two rules are given by which to apply gender to personified nouns: 1. Objects which convey the idea of great strength, size, power, firmness or terror are regarded as masculine; as, sun, time, sleep, death. 2. Objects which convey the idea of weakness, beauty, timidity or loveliness are regarded as feminine; as, moon, ship, earth, country, nature.

Observations on Gender.

Section 2.

In speaking of inferior animals or even of little children, gender is not always considered; as, The pet deer escaped to *its* native forest: The child sleeps in *its* little bed.

However, when gender is applied to animals the masculine or the feminine form is used; as, The lion seizes *his* prey; The nightingale sings *her* song.

Remark 1.—Some nouns in common gender are often regarded as masculine or feminine; as, Each person has *his* own duties to perform.

Remark 2.—Some nouns in common gender are often regarded as masculine; as, The Boers are a brave people; Heirs are often cheated out of *their* property.

Remark 3.—When a pronoun is used for a noun in common gender, the pronoun is usually of the masculine form; as, No pupil shall speak to *his* classmate.

LESSON LVIII.

Section 1.

Observations on Number—Formation of Plural Number.

Rule 1.—Nouns whose last sound readily joins to *s*, form their plurals by adding *s* to the singular; as, boy, boys; book, books; slate, slates.

Rule 2.—Nouns whose last sound does not readily joins to *s*, form their plurals by adding *es* to the singular; as, box, boxes; bench, benches; church, churches.

Rule 3.—Most nouns, except proper names, ending in *y* used

after a consonant letter, change the *y* to *ies;* as, sky, skies; lady, ladies; mercy, mercies; ally, allies; city, cities; daisy, daisies; fairy, fairies; fancy, fancies; mystery, mysteries.

Rule 4.—Nouns ending in *y* used after a vowel add *s* to form the plural; as, alley, alleys; attorney, attorneys; essay, essays; money, moneys; turkey, turkeys; valley, valleys.

Rule 5.—Nearly all nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change to *ves;* as, beef, beeves; life, lives; calf, calves; elf, elves; leaf, leaves; half, halves; loaf, loaves; knife, knives; shelf, shelves.

The following are exceptions to this rule: brief, briefs; chief, chiefs; proof, proofs; relief, reliefs; dwarf, dwarfs; hoof, hoofs; fife, fifes; reef, reefs; kerchief, kerchiefs; waif, waifs; safe, safes; strife, strifes; roof, roofs.

Rule 6.—Nouns ending in *ff,* except the word *staff,* add *s;* as, cuff, cuffs; muff, muffs; staff (a stick), staves, or staffs; staff (a body of officers), staffs.

Rule 7.—Some nouns ending in *o* used after a *vowel,* add *s;* as, trio, trios; folio, folios; bamboo, bamboos; embryo, embryos; seraglio, seraglios, cuckoo, cuckoos.

Rule 8.—Some nouns ending in *o* used after a consonant add *s;* as, halo, halos; canto, cantos; domino, dominos (or es); lasso, lassos; junto, juntos; piano, pianos; memento, mementos; octavo, octavos; two, twos; zero, zeros; solo, solos; tyro, tyros; quarto, quartos.

The following are exceptions to this rule: hero, heroes; cargo, cargoes; motto, mottoes; calico, calicoes; buffalo, buffaloes; embargo, embargoes; grotto, grottoes; negro, negroes; mulatto, mulattoes; tornado, tornadoes; potato, potatoes; portico, porticoes; veto, vetoes; torpedo, torpedoes; volcano, volcanoes.

Rule 9.—A few nouns form their plural irregularly; as, man, men; mouse, mice; goose, geese; ox, oxen; child, children; foot, feet; tooth, teeth; woman, women.

Rule 10. Figures, letters and signs form their plurals by adding *'s;* as, 8's, 9's, t's, m's, —'s. Dot your i's and cross your t's and don't forget the $'s.

Section 2.

Many compound words vary the principal word only, in forming the plural number; as, father-in-law, fathers-in-law; aid-de-camp, aids-de-camp; attorney-at-law, attorneys-at-law; daughter-in-law, daughters-in-law; son-in-law, sons-in-law; hanger-on, hangers-on; billet-doux, billets-doux; court-martial; courts-martial.

The following vary the last word; as, gentleman, gentlemen; fisherman, fishermen; goose-quill, goose-quills; French-man, French-men; fellow-servant, fellow-servants; English-man, English-men; mantrap, mantraps; mouthful, mouthfuls; handful, handfuls; maid servant, maid servants; spoonful, spoonfuls; stepson, stepsons; forget-me-not, forget-me-nots.

A few words have both parts made plural; as, man-servant, men-servants; woman-singer, women-singers; knight-templar, knights-templars; man-child, men-children; woman-servant, woman-servants.

Proper nouns with titles, except Mrs., may have either the title or the name made plural, but not both; as, The Miss Whites, or the Misses White; Dr. Hall and Dr. Holt, or Drs. Hall and Holt.

The following are not compound words, and add *s* to form their plurals: Brahman, Brahmans; German, Germans; Mussulman, Mussulmans; Talisman, Talismans.

According to their meaning some nouns have two plural forms; as, brother, brothers—relatives; brother, brethren—of the same society or church; foot, feet—unit of measure; foot, foot—infantry; die, dies—impression stamps; die, dice—marked cubes for gaming; fish, fishes—plural of fish; fish, fish—species or quantity; genius, geniuses—men of genius; genius, genii—spirits; cannon, cannons—large guns; cannon, cannon—used collectively; head, heads—part of the body; head, head—plural of animal; horse, horses—animals; horse, horse—cavalry; shot, shots—number of times; shot, shot—number of balls; index, indexes—table of contents; index, indices—signs; penny, pennies—pieces of money; penny, pence—quantity in value; sail, sails—canvas; sail, sail—vessels.

Some words have the same form in both numbers; as, bellows, hose, pains (care), deer, means, sheep, odds, gross, series, swine, that, who, vermin, species, which, yoke.

Names of substances, unless the kind is referred to, have no plural forms; as, silver, vinegar, hemp, bread, coffee, grass, flour, hay, gold, iron, honesty, milk, lead, marble, music, peace, molasses, water, tin, steel.

However, when the kinds of material are referred to the plural number is formed regularly; as, coffee, coffees; cotton, cottons; sugar, sugars; wine, wines.

Section 3.

Some nouns having plural forms only, are regarded as singular; as, ashes, annals, shears, clothes, tongs, mumps, oats, measles, scissors, pincers, smallpox, victuals, thanks, tidings, hysterics, bellows, billiards, news, mechanics, physics, mathematics, politics.

Collective nouns are treated as singular when they convey the idea of unity, and plural when they refer to the individuals

composing the collection or assembly; as, The committee made *its* report. The jury were divided in *their* opinion.

Words from Foreign Languages.

Words from foreign languages generally retain their original plural forms. A few, however, take the English plural; as, axis, axes; analysis analyses; bandits or banditti; antithesis, antitheses; basis, bases; appendix, appendixes or appendices; beau, beaus or beaux; cherub, cherubs or cherubim; focus, foci; datum, data; erratum, errata; ellipsis, ellipses; fungus, funguses or fungi; genus, genuses or genera; Madame, Mesdames, hypothesis, hypotheses; magus, magi; ignus fatuus, ignus fatui; nebula, nebulae; memorandum, memorandums or memoranda; oasis, oases; Monsieur, Monsieurs; phenomenon, phenomena; stratum, strata; synopsis, synopses; seraph, seraphs or serphim; vertebra, vertebrae; terminus, termini; vortex, vortexes or vortices.

LESSON LIX.

Different Uses of Words.

A may be used:

1. As a *noun;* as, *A* is the first letter of the English alphabet.
2. An *adjective;* as A house.
3. A *preposition;* as, Our party went *a-hunting.*

After—

1. A *preposition;* as, He followed *after* the show.
2. An *adverb;* as, The train goes before and the cars follow *after.*
3. A *conjunctive adverb;* as, The enemy surrendered *after* the first volley was fired.

4. An adjective; as, *After* editions were printed.

AGAIN—

1. An *adverb;* as, I hope you will come *again.*
2. A *conjunction;* as, *Again,* it will be observed &c.
3. An *adverbial phrase;* as, I read it *again and again.*

ALIKE—

1. An *adjective;* as, They are both *alike.*
2. An *adverb;* as, We were *alike* pleased with the performance and the performers.

ALL—

1. A *noun;* as, *All* were present. He gave *all* that he had.
2. An *adjective;* as, They were *all* present.
3. An *adverb;* as, The noise ceased *all* at once.

AS—

1. A *conjunctive adverb;* as, He continues to write *as* he did before.
2. A *relative pronoun;* as, Such *as* I have I am willing to divide with you.
3. A *conjunction* denoting apposition; as, He enlisted *as* captain.
4. Part of a *conjunction;* as, He reads *as if* the entire examination depends upon it.

   You are not *so tall as* I am.

   The man *as well as* the boy is to blame.

   As his early training is, *so* will his manhood be.
5. Part of a *preposition;* as, I am not informed *as to* that.

   As for me, I prefer independence,

BEFORE—

1. An *adverb;* as, The leader should go *before.*
2. A *preposition;* as, I saw the mist rising *before* me.
3. A *conjunctive adverb;* as, She arrived *before* I came.

BELOW—

1. A *noun;* as, He returned from *below.*
2. An *adjective;* as, They live in the house *below.*
3. An *adverb;* as, We went *below.*
4. A *preposition;* as, My grade is *below* the average.

BEST—

1. A *noun;* as, They all did their *best.*
2. An *adjective;* as, Read the *best* books.
3. An *adverb;* as, He can write *best* in the morning. Friends I loved *the best.*

BETTER—

1. A *noun;* as, Men should imitate their *betters.*
2. A *verb;* as, They did not *better* it much.
3. An *adjective;* as, John is a *better* scholar than I.
4. An *adverb;* as, He is *better* educated and *better* trained.

BUT—

1. An *adjective;* as, She is *but a* child. Note—*But a* should be parsed as one word.
2. An *adverb;* as, We can *but* perish.
3. A *preposition;* as, All were lost *but* two. (meaning except.)
4. A *conjunction;* as, He came early *but* went home late.

BY—

1. An *adverb;* as, Did you see the train go *by?*
2. A *preposition;* as, He went *by* himself.

EACH—

1. A *noun;* as, They help *each* other. Note—*Each* is in apposition with *they.*
2. An *adjective;* as, *Each* lady brought flowers.

ENOUGH—

1. A *noun;* as, You did not send *enough.* Note—The noun may be supplied and *enough* parsed as an adjective.
2. An *adjective;* as, We all have *trouble enough.*
3. An *adverb;* as, His speech was long *enough.*

LIKE—

1. A *noun;* as, I never saw the *like* before.
2. A *verb;* as, All teachers *like* to have good order.
3. An *adjective;* as, We have *like* opportunities.
4. A *conjunctive adverb;* as, He works *like* he was accustomed to hard labor.

ONCE—

1. A *noun;* as, Tell me this *once,* and I shall be satisfied.
2. An *adverb;* as, Holidays come *once* a year.

THE—

1. An *adverb.* Note—When *the* modifies an adverb, both words should be parsed as a single adverb; as, *The oftener* I read it *the better* I like it. Here *the oftener* modifies *read,* and *the better* modifies *like.*

WHILE—

1. A *noun;* as, It is not worth *while* to mention it. *While* is here used in the objective case without a governing word expressed. It relates to time.
2. A *verb;* as, You may *while* away a pleasant hour.
3. A *conjunctive adverb;* as, I saw the vessel *while* it was anchored in the harbor.

THAT—

1. An *adjective;* as, *That* rose is beautiful.
2. A *relative pronoun;* as, I have the same kind *that* you have.
3. A *conjunction;* as, We do not know *that* it is true.

WORTH—

1. *Noun;* as, We never knew his *worth* until after he left.

2. A *verb;* as, Woe *worth* the day. Note—This is the only use of the word as a verb, and means, Woe be to the day, or May or let woe be to the day. The noun which follows worth as a verb, is in the objective case, object of a preposition understood.

3. An *adjective;* as, It is *worth* nothing to me. He is *worth* a great deal. Note—In all such cases, *worth* is an adjective used as the predicate and modifies the subject, and the noun following it is in the objective case without a governing word expressed.

LESSON LX.

PUNCTUATION.

Section 1.

Marks of punctuation are used to aid the reader in his interpretation of the thought expressed by the writer. These marks may separate words from each other, or may separate phrases, clauses and sentences.

Notice the effect produced in the following sentence by the use of punctuation marks:

Joseph Evans says he will find your purse and return it to you.

Joseph, Evans says he will find your purse and return it to you.

"Joseph Evans," says he, "will find your purse and return it to you."

Joseph Evans says: "He will find your purse and return it to you".

Joseph, Evans says he will find your purse and—return it to you.

Section 2.

The Comma.

The Comma is used:

1. After a phrase out of its natural order.

Ex.—1. In a few minutes after the teacher arrived, the noise ceased.
2. If at first you fail, try a second time.
3. While some people are idle, others are improving their time.
4. Sitting by the fountain, he fell asleep and dreamed that he was dead.

2. To separate parenthetical and introductory words and phrases.

Ex.—1. Set-off, it is true, is called a counter-claim.
2. The exact day of payment need not, however, be stated.
3. It was, in fact, our only opportunity.
4. All you say is true, no doubt, and yet the argument is not conclusive.
5. Well, what do you think of the change?

3. To set off nouns in the independent case by direct address.

Ex.—1. Judson, what are you writing now?
2. I repeat, gentlemen of the jury, that the case is not clear.
3. Remember, young men, that you are responsible for your own conduct.
4. I rise, Mr. Chairman, to state a point or order.

4. To denote ellipsis of verbs.

Ex.—1. Old men obey the laws; young men, the rules of society.

2. The sun shines by day; the moon and stars, by by night.

3. Lucy studies Latin; Ella, Greek; and Lillie, German.

5. To separate words repeated for emphasis.

Ex.—1. Salt, salt, nothing but salt.

2. No, no, no, it can not be true.

3. Verily, verily, I say unto you.

4. You, you are to blame, my countrymen.

6. To set off nouns in apposition, together with their modifiers.

Ex.—1. Mr. Fast, the historian, lives in Morgantown.

2. His brother, the Superintendent, visited the city schools.

3. Where is William, your husband?

The comma should not be used to separate a general title.

Ex.—Queen Elizabeth was much adored.
The poet Milton was blind.

A title used after the name should be separated by the comma.

Ex.—Send all communications to Lettie Morgan, Secretary.

7. To separate couplets, or words used in pairs.

Ex.—He did not seem to care for houses or lands, gold or silver.

8. To set off short direct quotations.

Ex.—1. "I am brave and strong," said he, "and fear nothing".

2. "Come to school early Monday morning," said the teacher.

An indirect quotation should not be set off by the comma.

Ex.—George said that he would read the history of England.

9. To separate words, phrases or clauses which form a series.

Ex.—1. Industry, perseverance, honesty, and frugality are essential to success.

2. The air, the earth, the water, are all teeming with life.

3. He is a wise, noble, generous man.

Section 3.

The Semi-Colon.

The semi-colon is used:

1. To separate short sentences which have no grammatical dependence upon each other.

Ex.—1. The rain ceased; the clouds scattered; the sun again appeared, and peace and quiet reigned supreme.

2. The path was often stony; sometimes it led along steep hill-sides; sometimes, through deep woods.

3. Many ripe apples are yellow; a few are red.

2. To separate sentences which are themselves separated by commas.

Ex.—1. The path of duty is a plain, safe path; that of disobedience, a snare to entrap the individual.

2. There, only the English language would be spoken; and in an English colony their children would grow up, knowing only English customs and English home life.

3. Before a list of words not formally introduced.

Ex.—1. There are four kinds of sentences; Declarative, Imperative, Interrogative and Exclamatory.

2. The three safe guides to eternity are; A sound head, an honest heart, and an humble spirit.

Note.—The colon is also sometimes used for this purpose.

4. Before such words as *as, namely,* &c., used to introduce an example.

Ex.—1. A phrase is a group of words having neither subject nor predicate; as, on time; to see.

2. Every plant has three parts; root, stem and branch.

3. A descriptive adjective expresses some quality in the noun which it modifies; as, Cold weather; milder censure.

Section 4.

The Colon.

The colon is used:

1. Between the divisions of sentences which are themselves separated by semi-colons.

Ex.—1. Man has effected wonders; he is every day advancing in knowledge and power: yet, he can not so much as make a blade of grass.

2. Before a quotation referred to by *as follows, thus,* and a few other words.

Ex.—1. Thus: There were three companies. These companies were stationed as follows: One in front; one, in the rear; and one, at the bridge.

2. The truth of the matter is this: All those who were present are not guilty.

3. After the salutation in a letter.

Ex.—Dear Sir: Yours &c.

Note.—The colon thus used is generally followed by the dash.

Section 5.

THE PERIOD.

A period is used:

1. At the conclusion of a declarative or imperative sentence.

Ex.—1. General truths are expressed in the present tense.

2. Do not neglect so important a duty.

2. To denote an abbreviation.

Ex.—1. Lieut. Hobson was captured.

2. Dr. Snyder resides in Weston, W. Va.

3. After headings of chapters, titles of books or newspapers.

Ex.—1. The Density of Solids and Liquids.

2. The Charleston Gazette. The Weston Democrat. The Independent.

Section 6.

The Dash.

The dash is used to denote:

1. An abrupt change in the sentence.

   Ex.—1. Weston is noted for its paved streets, its prominent men, and—its oil boom.
   2. "He had no motive in his mind—no ruffles on his shirt."

2. A repetition for emphasis.

   Ex.—1. You speak like a boy—like a boy who feels the responsibility of boyhood days.
   2. What this country needs is men—men with brawny arms and massive brain.

The Hyphen.

The hyphen is used:

1. Between syllables of compound words.

   Ex.—1. There are twenty-four hours in a day.
   2. His father-in-law donated $1,000.

2. Between syllables divided at the end of a line.

   Ex.—There can be no good reason for such carelessness on the part of any one.

Section 7.

The Exclamation Point.

The exclamation point is used:

1. After an exclamatory word or sentence.
   Ex.—1. Oh! what a crash.
   2. We hail with joy each holiday. Hurrah! hurrah!
   3. "Come to me, O ye children!
   For I hear you at your play,
   And the questions that perplexed me
   Have vanished quite away."

Section 8.

Quotation Marks.

Quotation marks are used:

1. To enclose direct quotations.
   Ex.—1. "That can not be," replied the wolf.
   2. "I am inclined to think," said the schoolmaster, "that you are disposed to be a little careless to-day".

2. To enclose titles of books, papers or manuscripts.
   Ex.—1. A dainty little book is "Selections from Isaac Pennington".
   2. Your letter found me reading "The Hoosier Schoolmaster".
   3. Your essay, "A Trip Across the Lake," was much appreciated.

Section 9.

The Apostrophe.

The apostrophe is used:

1. To pluralize letters, characters and figures.
   Ex.—1. Make your *t's* and *l's* a little longer.
   2. How many 8's and 9's are found in the first column?
   3. Write your 5's, a's and —'s plainer.

2. To denote omission of letters and contraction of words.
   Ex.—1. *You've* seen them on the buds and flowers.
   2. *You'd* be surprised to see how nicely she sails *o'er* the lake.

Section 10.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

Begin with a capital letter:

1. The first word of a sentence.
   Ex.—1. Here and there were old moss-covered logs and piles of brush.
   2. Thus the poor sufferer tried to comfort others and herself.

2. Proper nouns and proper adjectives.
   Ex.—1. London is the capital of England.
   European customs do not please the average American citizen.

3. The first word of every line of poetry.
   Ex.—"'Twas in the prime of summer-time,
   An evening calm and cool,
   And four-and-twenty happy boys
   Came bounding out of school."

4. Names of the Deity, and pronouns used in address to God.
   Ex.—Divine Providence; Heavenly Father; Jehovah; The Eternal; Thou who art over all and above all, we beseech Thee to hear us.

5. The first word of a direct quotation.
   Ex.—Uncle said, "Go up to the highest point on the mountain."
   2. "He is an honorable man," said the judge, "and should be acquitted".

6. Nouns vividly personified.

Ex.—"Sigh on sad heart, for *Love's* eclipse
And *Beauty's* fairest queen,
Though 'tis not for my peasant lips
To soil her name between."

7. Names of holidays, days of the week and months of the year.

Ex.—Election Day; Christmas; Thursday, November 29, 1900, was Thanksgiving Day.

8. The first word of each term used in a list of particulars.

Ex.—Expenses for last year:
Repairs, $50.00.
Apparatus, $40.00.
Incidentals, $5.00.
Printer's bill, $9.00.

9. Names of written instruments and of important events.

Ex.—The Protocol; The Articles of Confederation; The Era of Good Feeling.

10. Titles of honor, names of religious sects, and names of political parties.

Ex.—Hon. H. W. Harmer; The Democrats; The Republicans.
2. The Baptists, Presbyterians and Methodists conducted an union meeting; J. S. Vandervort, President.

11. The words *north, south, east* and *west,* when they refer to sections of country.

Ex.—One of my brothers lives in the East, and another, in the West.

12. The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* should always be capitals.

13. All principal words in a name.

Ex.—1. The History of England.
2. Weston Electric Light, Power and Water Company.
3. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.
4. The Lewis County Bank.
5. The Acme Publishing Company.

LESSON LXI.

Various Uses of the Different Parts of Speech.

Any thing that is used as a name may be called a noun:

Ex.—"Z" is the last letter of the English alphabet.
"To steal" is a violation of law.
"Them" is a pronoun.
"What I told you" is true.

———o———

Sometimes nouns become adjectives by being placed before other nouns which they modify.

Ex.—*Christmas* morning.
A *holiday* journey.
A *silver* spoon
West Virginia lumber.

———o———

Names of books, papers and other names containing several words, may be called nouns and disposed of as single words.

Ex.—Lowell's Bigelow Papers.
Powell's Life of Taylor.
McPherson's History of the United States.

Sometimes proper nouns are so used as to lose the features that distinguish them from common nouns, and thereby become common nouns.

Ex.—William McKinley is the *Lincoln* of the present time.
George W. Dewey is the *Paul Jones* of our navy.
All *Neros* should be execrated.

The names *Lincoln, Paul Jones* and *Nero* have lost the features which distinguish individual names by referring to others equal in rank or bravery to Lincoln, Paul Jones or Nero, and are, therefore, common nouns.

———o———

Such words as *mother, uncle* and *aunt* when used alone to denote the person referred to, are proper nouns in sense.

Ex.—*Mother,* did you call me?
Come here, *Sister,* a moment.
I did not hear you, *Uncle.*

———o———

Common nouns may lose their common or general signification, and thus become proper nouns. It is the office of proper nouns to distinguish persons or objects from each other, and whenever a common noun makes this distinction, it becomes a proper noun.

Ex.—We crossed *The Blue Ridge* and visited *The Falls.*
The Arrow (a ship) sailed for New Orleans.

———o———

The possessive case of compound and complex nouns is formed by annexing the possessive sign to the last word.

Ex.—Waitman Barb's Poems.
The Queen of England's Palace.
Fast and Maxwell's History and Government of West Virginia.

When two or more names having separate possessions are mentioned, each name should have the possessive sign annexed.

Ex.—Montgomery's and Goodrich's Histories.
White's and Harvey's Grammars.

———o———

When two or more names representing joint owners are used, the possessive sign should be annexed to the last name only.

Ex.—Hornor & Gaylord's Wholesale House.
Williams & Davison's Hardware Store.

———o———

A noun modified by a noun in apposition, or other descriptive words or phrases, has the possessive sign annexed to the noun which immediately precedes the name of the thing possessed, though it is not always the name of the possessor.

Ex.—His Honor, the Judge's, opinion.
The minister of the Methodist Church's salary.

———o———

When a pronoun has two or more singular antecedents in *different* genders, either singular pronouns of different genders, or a plural pronoun in the common gender, should be used.

Ex.—No man or woman should injure *his* or *her* neighbor's property.
No man or woman should injure *their* neighbor's property.

Should one of the antecedents be plural, it should be placed next to the pronoun, and the pronoun itself should be plural.

Ex.—Neither the teacher nor the pupils were satisfied with *their* entertainment.

The pronoun *it* is sometimes used in the nominative and objective cases without any definite antecedent.

Ex.—O, how *it* rains.

Come and see *it* snow.

It was Admiral Dewey who won honors at Manilla.

———o———

When two or more nouns are connected by *and,* thus forming a compound term, the whole should be regarded as a single thing; as, The *house and lot* was sold at cost, but that was not *its* real value. Here the pronoun *its* refers to the words "house and lot" for its antecedent. Another example: The clerk receives *ten dollars a month and board,* and *it* is considered a sufficient compensation.

LESSON LXII.

Different Uses of Pronouns.

A pronoun has the same number, person and gender as its antecedent.

Ex.—The soldier was true to *his* country.

Sarah exchanged *her* old book for a new one.

———o———

The antecedent of a pronoun may be a noun, a pronoun, a phrase or a clause.

Ex.—He sent *his* daughter to school.

The man lost *his* watch in the river.

He wanted to enlist, but *it* was denied him.

Note.—*To enlist* is the antecedent of *it.*

The boy disobeyed his teacher, and now he is sorry for *it.*

Note.—*Disobeyed his teacher* is the antecedent of *it.*

The English language has no pronoun in singular number, third person and common gender, and for this reason pronouns in the masculine gender are sometimes used for this purpose.

Ex.—If any one should call to see me this afternoon, tell *him* to wait until I return.

Each individual present exhibited great bravery by helping to extinguish the flames, and each received *his* share of the amount donated.

———o———

When a pronoun has two or more antecedents meaning the same person or thing, the pronoun should be singular.

Ex.—The poet and statesman wrote a history of *his* own country.

The husband and father has a right to punish *his* child.

———o———

When one of two or more antecedents of a pronoun is made emphatic, the pronoun should be singular.

Ex.—The law, as well as the gospel, has its commandments.

The man and not the boy, is responsible for *his* conduct.

———o———

A pronoun whose antecedent is limited by *no, each* or *every,* should be singular.

Ex.—No profession and no trade is free from *its* difficulties.

Each conductor and each fireman did *his* duty.

Every nation and every tribe has *its* language.

———o———

A pronoun with two or more singular antecedents in the same gender, and connected by *or* or *nor,* should be singular.

Ex.—Mary or Lucy will return *her* book tomorrow.

LESSON LXIII.

General Review.

What is grammar? (See preface.)

Why are words used in sentences?

How many parts of speech are there? Name them. Define each.

What is a proper noun? How should proper nouns begin?

What is a common noun? How should common nouns begin?

Give examples of each kind of nouns.

May a proper noun ever become a common noun? If so, when?

May a common noun ever become a proper noun? If so, when?

Give examples of each and explain their use.

What is a collective noun? Give examples.

Tell how and why a collective noun may have either the singular or plural form of the verb.

What is an abstract noun? Give examples.

What is a verbal noun? Give examples.

What are the properties of the noun?

What is number? Define each number.

What is person? How many persons? Define each.

Give examples of nouns in the first, second and third persons.

Give rules for forming the plural of nouns.

How do nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form their plurals?

Name some nouns which have no plural forms.

Name some nouns which have no singular forms.

How is the plural of compound and complex nouns formed?

When other parts of speech are used as nouns, how is the plural formed?

How form the plural of a title and a name? Give examples.

What is gender? How many genders are there? Define each.

Name the methods of distinguishing the sexes.

What is case? How many cases? Define each.

How is the possessive case of singular nouns formed?

How is the possessive case of plural nouns formed?

How is the nominative case of nouns known? The possessive?

How is the objective case known? The independent?

The Pronoun.

What is a pronoun? How many kinds of pronouns? Define each.

What is the antecedent of a relative pronoun?

What does *antecedent* mean? What does *subsequent* mean?

What kind of pronouns have subsequents? Give examples.

What properties have pronouns? Are these properties the same as the properties of nouns?

What are personal pronouns? Name some personal pronouns.

Decline the personal pronoun in first person.

What is declension of pronouns? Why are pronouns declined?

Decline the simple personal pronoun in second person.

In what cases are pronouns declined?

Decline a simple personal pronoun in third person.

May relative and interrogative pronouns be declined? Give examples.

What is a relative pronoun? How many kinds of relatives?

How do relatives differ from personal pronouns?

Name the simple relatives. The compound relatives.

State how compound relatives are formed. Give examples.

What words are used as interrogative pronouns?

May these words ever be used as adjectives? If so, when?

Decline the compound personal pronouns in first, second and third person.

The Verb.

What is a verb? What does the word *verb* mean?

When we say a verb *asserts* or *affirms* something, what do we mean?

How are verbs divided according to their *use?*

What is a copulative verb? What does *copula* mean?

What is a transitive verb? Give examples.

What is an intransitive verb? Give examples.

May a transitive verb in one sense, ever become intransitive?

What is the object of a transitive verb? Explain.

What kind of verbs have voice? Define voice.

How are verbs divided according to their *form?*

What is a regular verb? An irregular verb? An auxiliary verb?

What properties belong to verbs? How many voices have verbs?

When is the active voice used, and when the passive voice?

How is a verb in the active voice changed to the passive voice? Give examples.

What is mode? How many modes are there?

What is tense? How many tenses has the indicative mode?

What is meant by present tense? By past tense? By future tense?

What is meant by present perfect tense? By past perfect tense?

What is the use of the future perfect tense?

How may the present perfect tense usually be known? The past perfect tense? The future perfect tense?

How many and what tenses has the subjunctive mode?

What tenses has the potential mode?

Give examples of verbs in all the tenses in the indicative mode.

Give examples of verbs in all tenses used in the subjunctive mode.

Give examples of all tenses used in the potential mode.

How many and what tenses are used in the imperative mode? In the infinitive mode?

For what purpose are auxiliary verbs used? Give examples.

What is synopsis of verbs? Conjugation of verbs?

What is meant by the *number* and *person* of verbs?

What is meant by the principal parts of a verb? Give examples.

Give a conjugation of the verb "To Be" in all the modes and tenses.

Conjugate the verb "To Frighten" in all the modes.

The Participle.

What is a participle? Why is this part of speech so called?

How many participles are there? Give examples.

Define the present participle. How does it end?

Define the past participle. How may the past participle usually be known or distinguished from the verb?

How does the past participle usually end?

What is the compound participle? How formed?

May the participle ever be used as a noun? If so, when?

May the participle form of the verb ever be used as an adjective? Give examples.

What is the difference, if any, between a participle and a verbal adjective? Give examples.

The Adjective.

What is an adjective? What does an adjective modify?

Name the two great classes of adjectives. Give examples of each.

How many kinds of descriptive adjectives are there?

What is a common adjective? A proper adjective? A verbal adjective?

How many classes of definitive adjectives are there?

What words are called articles? Explain the use of each.

Define pronominal adjectives. Name the principal pronominals.

How many kinds of pronominal adjectives? Name them.

What are demonstrative adjectives? Distributive adjectives?

Name some demonstrative adjectives. Some distributive adjectives.

What are indefinite adjectives? Give examples.

What are numeral adjectives? Give examples.

What are cardinal adjectives? Ordinals? Multiples?

What is comparison of adjectives? How many degrees or comparison?

Define each degree of comparison.

How is the comparative degree of words of one syllable formed?

How is the comparative degree of words of more than one syllable formed? What exception to this rule? Give examples.

What kind of adjectives admit of comparison?

Name some descriptive adjectives that do not admit of comparison.

What is meant by irregular comparison of adjectives? Give examples.

How many kinds of comparison? Define each kind.

By ascending comparison how are adjectives compared?

By descending comparison how are adjectives compared?

Give examples of each kind of comparison.

What other part of speech may be compared?

The Adverb.

What is an adverb? What besides single words, may adverbs modify?

How many kinds of adverbs are there?

How are adverbs of place distinguished from other adverbs?

How are adverbs of time distinguished? Give examples.

How are adverbs of cause distinguished? Give examples.

How are adverbs of manner distinguished? Give examples.

How are adverbs of degree distinguished? Give examples.

What is a conjunctive adverb? What two uses has a conjunctive adverb?

Give examples of conjunctive adverbs.

What are interrogative adverbs? Give examples.

Name some words that are frequently used as introductory words.

What adverbs admit of comparison?

The Preposition.

What is a preposition? What does *Preposition* mean?

What is meant by the object of a preposition?

Between what words does a preposition show relation?

What is a prepositional phrase? Give examples.

Give examples of prepositions which modify phrases.

When the prepositional phrase modifies a noun, between what words does the preposition show relation?

When the prepositional phrase modifies a verb, between what words does the preposition show relation?

When may a preposition be used as an adverb? Give examples.

The Conjunction and Interjection.

What is a conjunction? Name two kinds of conjunctions.

What is the office of conjunctions?

Give examples of conjunctions used to connect words.

Give examples of conjunctions used to connect phrases.

Give examples of conjunctions used to connect sentences.

Distinguish between coordinate and subordinate conjunctions.

What kind of elements does a coordinate conjunction connect?

What kind of elements does a subordinate conjunction connect?

Give examples of each kind of connectives.

What is the difference between a conjunction and a conjunctive adverb?

What is an interjection? What is its use? Give examples.

Analysis and Diagrams.

What is a sentence? How many kinds of sentences are there?

Define a simple sentence. A complex sentence. A compound sentence.

What is a declarative sentence? An imperative sentence?

Define an exclamatory sentence. An interrogative sentence.

What is the subject of a sentence? What is a compound subject?

What are the principal elements of a sentence?

Name the subordinate elements of a sentence.

What is a proposition? How many kinds of propositions?

Define a principal proposition.

What is an independent proposition? A dependent proposition?

When is a proposition a sentence? When, not a sentence?

What is an element of a sentence? Give examples. How many elements must the simple sentence have? Why? Give examples.

What besides single words, may the subject of a sentence be?

Give examples of infinitives used as the subject. As predicate.

Give examples of phrases used as the subject. As predicate.

Give examples of clauses used as the subject. As predicate.

What kind of elements are nouns and pronouns in the possessive case?

What kind of elements are nouns in apposition? Give examples.

Give examples of nouns used as adjective elements.

Give examples of adjectives used as principal elements.

State the advantage of analyzing sentences by diagrams.

What mark separates the subject from the verb?

What mark separates a noun or adjective predicate from the verb?

What mark separates an objective element from the verb?

How is an adjective or adverbial element shown to modify, by diagram?

How is an adjective or adverbial element composed of a preposition and its objects, shown to modify, by diagram?

Show by diagram, how to analyze a simple sentence.

Show by diagram, how to analyze a complex sentence.

Show by diagram, how to analyze a compound sentence.

Letter Writing.

How many parts are there of an ordinary business or social letter?

What is the first part of a letter called?

What does the heading of a letter contain?

State how the heading of a letter should be punctuated.

What is the second part of a letter called?

What does the introduction of a letter contain?

Give examples of introduction of letters to strangers.

Give examples of introduction of letters to relatives.

State how the introduction of a letter should be punctuated

What is the third part of a letter called?

What does the body of a letter contain?

What is the last part of a letter called?

What does the conclusion of a letter contain?

What is the writing on the envelope called? What does it contain?

Write a complete letter to The Acme Publishing Company, Morgantown, W. Va., asking for information in regard to publishing a text-book on Grammar.

Write an invitation to two lady friends to be present at a social gathering of friends at your home.

LESSON LXIV.

Sentences for Final Review in Analysis and Parsing.

1. And they played again and again; and when day, stealing through the skylights, began to dim the lamps, it found the two in the same places at the same table, still at the game.

2. A man thirty years old, I said to myself, should have his fields of life all plowed, and his planting well done; for after that it is summer-time, with space scarce enough to ripen his sowing.

3. It was at one time supposed that municipal government in the Middle Ages was a relic of Roman times, but the better opinion is that municipal liberty as it existed in the Middle Ages was a product of the Germanic peoples.

4. In his last days, old King Louis, in wretched health, tortured with the fear of death, and in constant dread of plots to destroy him, shut himself up in his gloomy castle, which he

fortified and manned with guards who were instructed to shoot all who approached without leave.

5. I speak not to disprove what Brutus spoke,
But here I am to speak what I do know.
You all did love him once, not without cause;
What cause withholds you, then, to mourn for him?
O judgment, thou art fled to brutish beasts,
And men have lost their reason!—Bear with me;
My heart is in the coffin there with Caesar,
And I must pause till it come back to me.

—*Shakespeare.*

6. Illustrations of this capacity of the intellect to quicken the processes of thought, which consist at first of strenuous efforts, until, by reiteration, they reach automatic rapidity, may be found in every one's experience.

7. The early lessons consist in painstaking endeavor, in which every touch of a key is prompted by a distinct act of the will and a series of careful volitions precisely corresponding to the series of musical notes which compose the piece selected for practice. But if the reviews of the same air are continued, the exact efforts succeed each other with increased facility and each note requires less and less exclusive attention.

8.

Love took up the glass of time, and turn'd it in his glowing hands;
Every moment, lightly shaken, ran itself in golden sands.

Love took up the harp of Life, and smote on all the chords with might;
Smote the chord of Self, that, trembling, pass'd in music out of sight.

Many a morning on the moorland did we hear the copses ring,
And her whisper throng'd my pulses with the fulness of the
Spring.

Many an evening by the waters did we watch the stately ships,
And our spirits rush'd together at the touching of the lips.

—*Tennyson.*.

JAN 5 1905

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS
0 003 217 944 7